

A
SOURCE TEXTBOOK
IN
AMERICAN HISTORY

DAVIDSON





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Manuel Leon
Riverdale, MD,
Fall 1993

A SOURCE TEXTBOOK IN AMERICAN HISTORY

A FIRST BOOK WITH THE EUROPEAN BACKGROUND

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SKELETONS AND HUMAN BEINGS

Professor and Mrs. Davidson have here assembled fresh material and presented it in a fresh way. The usual history text-book gives the skeleton only—the dry bones of history, ugly and unrelieved by a covering of flesh, and artificially wired together at the severed joints. Such a skeleton is not history, and it is a travesty to call it so. It is no more history than a mummy from the tomb is a person. Human history deals with human beings, and when human beings are left out the chief essential of history has been overlooked; someone has exhumed a skeleton and called it a man.

The more elementary the history text the worse it usually is in this respect. The historian writes a monumental work of several volumes. It is readable and human because it is full of detail, and presents living, talking, working, playing, weeping, laughing human beings, not skeletons or statues, those most lifeless of things.

From such a lifelike, intimate account—of the kind that Parkman, Fiske, McMaster, and Channing have written—a college text is prepared. It contains the skeleton, with most of the flesh removed. The high-school text is a college text still more reduced; the same old skeleton, full length, none of the 206 bones missing, but more emaciated. When the high-school text is cut down for grammar-school children, the skeleton still is all there, but now it is completely bare, ugly, and horrible.

No wonder history is unpopular in the schools—and it is unpopular. Children are given historical bones to contemplate, not human beings. They would any day rather see a live ruler on horseback than to view the skeleton of even Napoleon Bonaparte—and so would I.

A topical outline is not history; a chart of dates is not history; and a snake-like diagram designed to represent the tortuous anglings and devious ways of political parties is not history. Nor do these things look like history. They are useful devices to show time or other relationships. But they are not history.

The materials of history are the contemporary records left by the makers of history along the path. They are first-hand accounts written by the actors or those who saw them act: monuments and buildings, roads and bridges; or even the débris that everybody and every period leaves scattered along the way. Such things are interesting. Diluted

hearsay testimony lacks vitality. Very few persons care when I rehearse what I have read about Napoleon. If I had seen Napoleon, they might listen to me; but how much better if they could read what Napoleon himself said and wrote.

The authors here present living personalities, not historical skeletons. Prince Henry the Navigator is made real by the anxious words of his dying mother. His Christian zeal is reflected by his brother Prince Peter's story of his visit to the Holy Land. The universal fear of the Turks is revealed by the words of the agitated queen of Cyprus. Columbus's notions of the Orient can be gathered from Marco Polo's own description of the court of the Grand Khan of China, to whom Columbus bore a letter of introduction, which he sent by a messenger to a chief of the island of Cuba, many thousand miles out of the way. No second-hand story of Columbus's first voyage can be as thrilling as that written day by day by himself in his journal. Through this precious document we can see the admiral's sailors shed tears when they lose sight of homeland, hear their fear-inspired complaints when the voyage seems interminable, and share their thrill of joy when at last they see a light on a beach in the Bahamas. All this makes the great voyage real.

What boy or girl will not read with interest the account by Gama's sailor, telling how poor Gama's European presents were laughed at by the officers of the rich king of Calicut? Magellan will not be forgotten by the boy who reads the story of the fight in the Philippines in which the bold leader lost his life. Cabrillo will be long remembered from the childish pantomime enacted by the Indians at San Diego, mimicking the Spaniards of whom they had heard in the interior.

And so on through the rest of the book. In its attractive pages the pupil will find lively, first-hand source materials, which will do much to vivify and make real the shadowy persons who pass in monotonous procession through the pages of the ordinary text. The beautiful illustrations add greatly to the instructive qualities of the book. When properly used, well-chosen pictures and maps are as valuable as the written paragraph. I predict great success for this unusual book, and shall look forward with interest to the publication of the succeeding volumes.

HERBERT E. BOLTON

PREFACE

This book is offered as a text in the formal introduction to American history in the schools. It consists for the most part of original narratives woven into a running account. It is therefore a distinct departure from the usual practice. Instead of supplying the "European Background" in a separate text, this is incorporated as an integral element, Parts One and Three being wholly devoted to it. There is, in addition, an outline story of European civilization leading to the first narrative of the book. While this has been placed after Part Four, some may prefer to use it after Part One. The advantages of this arrangement of background over that of a separate text seem too obvious to require argument.

The selections made from the original sources are those that have seemed most interesting and most significant, and most useful in maintaining an effective narrative. Occasionally simpler words have had to be substituted for words outside the limits of youthful vocabularies, and there have been some minor omissions and alterations of word or phrase. It has not seemed necessary to indicate the omission of passages in the usual way. On the whole, the selected portions remain intact, the object having been to keep them faithful to the original. The sources drawn upon are indicated in the Appendix by numbers corresponding with those at the conclusion of the several selections in the text.

The selections have been tested by classroom use for the purpose of assuring their interest to children as well as the suitability of words and constructions.

Questions have been interpolated in many of the narratives with a view to invoking reflection. Similar questions have been placed at the end of each narrative and of each part, in addition to those emphasizing the essential facts. The troublesome matter of chronology has been provided for by time lines or charts, which may be studied to advantage. In this connection it is not the

fixing of isolated dates that is important, so much as the general time relations of the episodes. Constant reference to the maps for the geographical setting is recommended.

One-fourth of the book consists of illustrations, chosen for their historical and educational interest and value. This has required an unusual search among pictorial sources, both American and foreign. Pictorial material suitable for children is as yet quite limited. In time it will have the development it so much deserves.

The teacher's own resources are so altogether important to success in teaching any subject that it has been thought desirable to make reference in the Appendix to a limited number of interesting and relevant books dealing with special topics.

The authors are indebted to many persons for friendly assistance and suggestions. The following publishers have generously permitted the use of copyright material: Chapman & Hall, Ltd., London; Grant Richards, Ltd., London; J. P. Lippincott, Philadelphia; Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. Courtesies extended in connection with the illustrations are noted in the credit lines, and are here acknowledged with sincere appreciation. Thanks are due the teachers who provided opportunity for, and the children who participated in, the testing of the material. Mr. J. W. Kelsey, Berkeley, California, gave valued aid. Of the historians who rendered assistance, special thanks are due Professor P. A. Martin of Stanford University. Our heaviest obligation is to the historian and publisher, Mr. W. C. Doub, who has been most helpful at every stage in the preparation of the book.

The teacher's convenience has been carefully considered. It is believed that the departure in material and method will be welcomed, and that it will secure more valuable results from the teaching of American history. The use of the sources in high school and college has long been accepted as a matter of course; their use in the elementary school has been questioned only because of its supposed impracticability. It is believed that the present arrangement overcomes this objection.

P. E. D.
E. C. D.

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DISCOVERY

—Courtesy of The Mentor



A TOURNAMENT IN THE MIDDLE AGES

PART ONE

A CENTURY OF PREPARATION

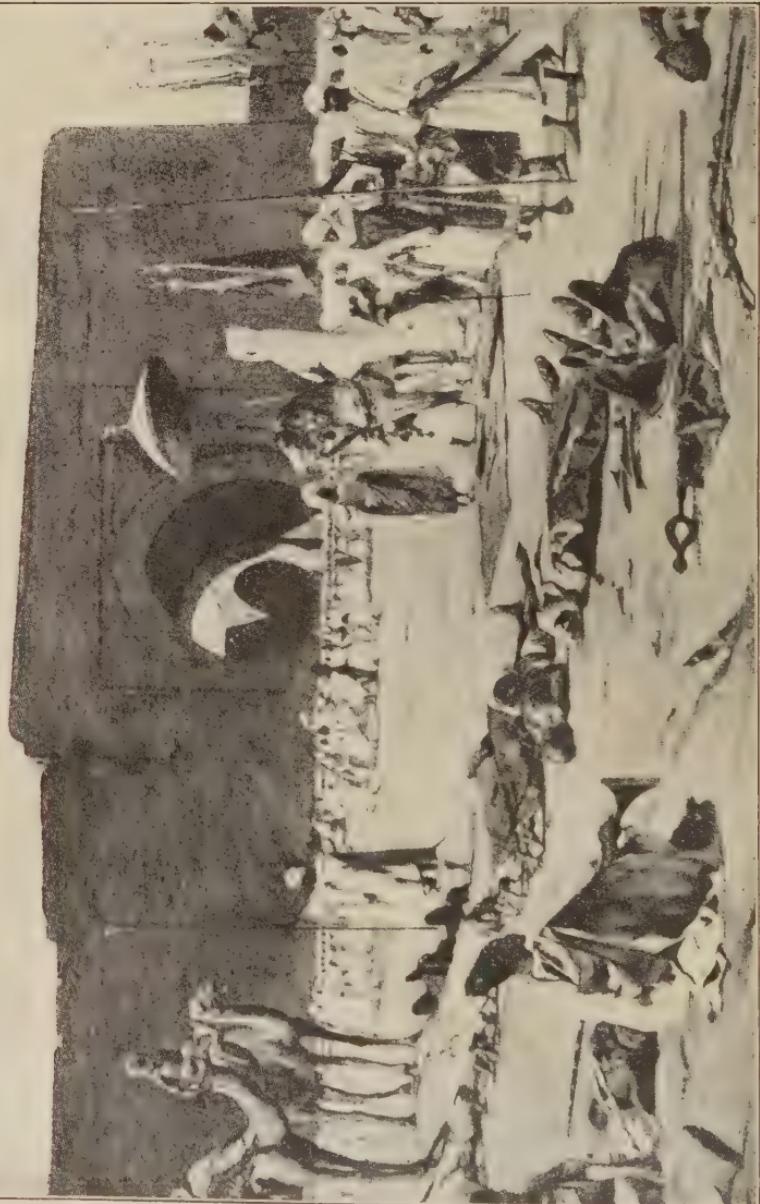
KING JOHN OF PORTUGAL AND HIS THREE SONS CAPTURE A MOORISH CITY IN AFRICA, 1415

King John of Portugal had five sons. At the time our story begins, Edward, the oldest, who was to take the throne of his father, was twenty-four. Peter was twenty-three and Henry was twenty-one. Peter loved to read and study, while Henry was forever dreaming of mighty conquests beyond the sea. These three older sons were already helping their father govern the kingdom of Portugal, and all were eager to become knights and to do great things for their family and their kingdom.

King John had just ended a victorious war with the neighboring kingdom of Castile, and he proposed to celebrate this victory by holding a grand tournament in which his three sons should compete for the honors of knighthood (see opposite page). But these spirited youths had other plans. They wished to show what they could do in some real war against a brave enemy, and not in the make-believe fighting of the tournament. So they suggested to their father a great expedition against the Moorish city of Ceuta across the straits on the north coast of Africa.

Now the Moors of Africa were the ancient enemies of the Christian people of the Spanish peninsula. Hundreds of years before, they had crossed over into Spain and had conquered all that land. It had required many years of fighting to drive them back again, and they still held the little kingdom of Granada in the southeast, as you will see from the map on page 13. Moreover, the Moors were not Christians but followers of Mohammed. The Christians called them infidels and hated them as such.

The suggestion of a war against the ancient enemy was of course pleasing to the King. Still he hesitated, for he was growing old and his health was suffering from the hardships of his



Painting by Constant

Mohammed was the founder of the Moslem religion. Seven hundred years before the time of our first story, his followers had conquered all North Africa, from Egypt to the Atlantic Ocean, and afterwards the Spanish peninsula (see map, p. 415). The tribes of the African desert often rebelled. A victorious army of the Sultan of Morocco is shown here receiving the submission of the last few rebels (on camels to the left).



Painting by Constant

CHRISTIAN CAPTIVES AT GRANADA AFTER A MOORISH VICTORY

many years of fighting. Then the expedition would be very costly and he was not sure it could be made a great success. But his three vigorous sons made light of all difficulties and in time preparations for the expedition were begun.

There was much to be done to fit out the fleet with all the necessary things. Gold and silver had to be found and coined into money for the expenses. The old navy had to be repaired



Photo—Flandrin, Casablanca

THE CITY OF CEUTA IN MOROCCO AT THE PRESENT TIME

and new war-galleys built. Crossbowmen, lancers and archers had to be enlisted. Skillful captains for the ships had to be engaged from Genoa and elsewhere. The shipyards hummed with activity like vast ant-heaps. At night the work was carried on by the glare of torches. Nearby, cattle were being slaughtered, skinned, salted and packed in barrels for the meat supply. Coopers were busy making barrels, and tailors seemed ever to be cut-

ting and sewing sails for the ships. Carpenters were at work mounting the great guns for the war-galleys. Pulleys and wind-lessees creaked and groaned, ropes coiled and twisted as they were pulled about the yards, while at the mint furnaces roared as they melted the precious metals for the moulding of coins. Each man felt the importance of his work and did his best.

All these preparations caused great wonder on the part of the people, for the King had decided to keep the object of the expedition a secret until the time was quite right. Messengers from the neighboring kingdoms of Castile, Aragon and Granada came to enquire anxiously if the King meant to attack them. They were told that the King did not mean to war upon their kingdoms.

In the midst of the preparations the dreaded plague appeared, and many were smitten and died. To the horror of her devoted family the Queen herself was struck down by the awful disease. "May God give me strength," she said, "to hold out until I have given my sons the swords I have promised them, and also my blessing." Messengers were sent post-haste for the three elder sons, and the precious swords—their handles fashioned in gold and set with pearls—were laid beside her. Eagerly the Queen reached for them and summoned her sons. At a signal from their mother the Princes knelt beside her, while she, supporting herself feebly, presented a sword to each. To the King she handed a golden locket containing, she said, a bit of wood from the cross of Christ. This was to be divided and a fragment given to each son.

The King went away to struggle with his sorrow alone. The sons remained to the end. The sound of footsteps aroused the Queen. "How is the wind?" she asked feebly.

"Northern gale," they answered.

"It is favorable for your voyage. I had hoped to hear of your landing." "So you will," they said.

"No—Yes—I shall see it from above. You must not let my death delay you. In a week I shall see you landing."

That day she died and the nation was plunged in gloom. She

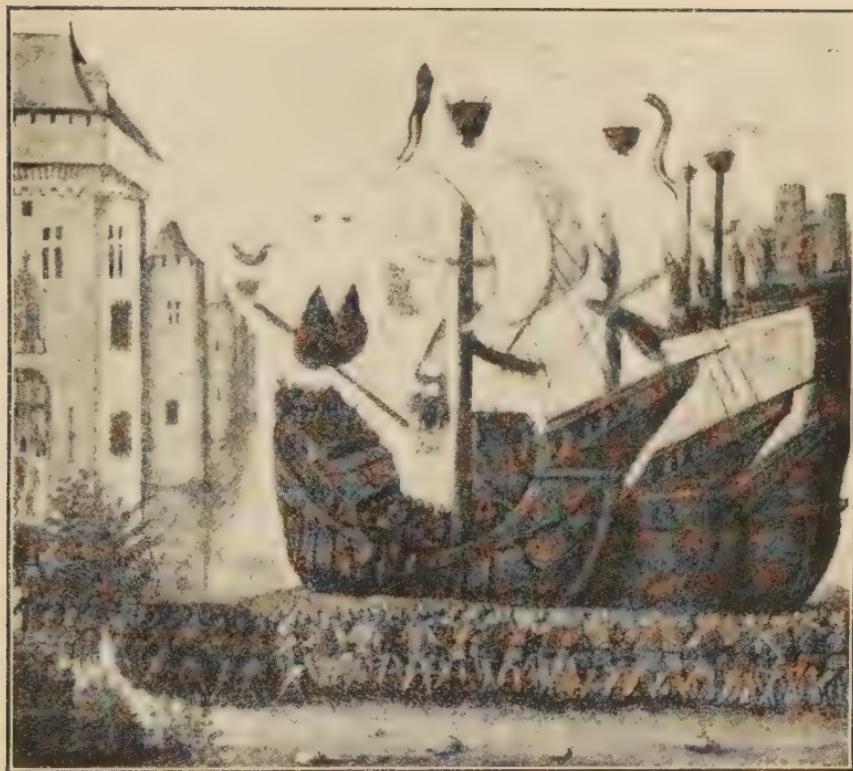
had been a devoted wife and mother and a high-minded queen of her people. To add to the gloom there came, strange to tell, a total eclipse of the sun.

But the faith of the people in the glorious outcome of the expedition drove away their fears. They believed that God intended some great good to come of it, and the Queen had urged that it be not delayed. So the flags were hoisted upon the ships in the harbor, sounds of merry music again floated over the water, and the white sails flapped once more in the sunlight. The enthusiasm of the people was roused to fever pitch. Death and the plague were forgotten and the great fleet prepared to set out.

There were 240 vessels all told. Of these 27 were galleys-of-war with three rows of oars; 32 with two rows of oars. There were 63 ships for carrying soldiers, and 120 other vessels, probably for supplies. There were 30,000 sailors and rowers, and 20,000 soldiers. One English nobleman had brought five vessels crowded with archers.

On July 23, 1415, the fleet left its moorings at Lisbon and in full sail with the swishing of oars and the flapping of canvas made its way down the Tagus. The brazen note of trumpets filled the air. People lined the city walls, crowded along the shore and climbed the neighboring hills, to see the last of the great fleet, and raised their hands to God to aid the great enterprise. "Where is it going?" was the question on every lip, for they were not to know for several days.

It was planned to attack the city of Ceuta after twenty days, for the voyage from Lisbon was a short one (see map, p. 13). The fleet moved down the coast of Portugal and then turned east towards the Strait of Gibraltar. Friendly visits were made at the seaports of Castile and Granada; after which the fleet moved across to make the attack. But there were delays and obstacles. A violent gale scattered the ships and threatened to wreck them. A week was lost. Then with the coming of fair weather the attack was made. It was to be a surprise attack in the early morning. With the first gray of dawn shrill whistles

*From an old print***EMBARKING THE TROOPS**

This old print was made about 75 years after the capture of Ceuta. Doubtless there were such ships in the expedition. Notice the crescent shape, the high structures at either end, the single mast, and the fighting top; also the costumes of the men.

rent the air, giving the signal for the start. Every man was on deck. Some hammered on their armor; others threw on their doublets; others brandished their swords or sharpened their daggers. Priests moved about the decks raising the cross and confessing the men. King John put out in a boat to commence the assault. Quickly the rest followed, and with the blast of trumpets and shouts of battle the fighting began.

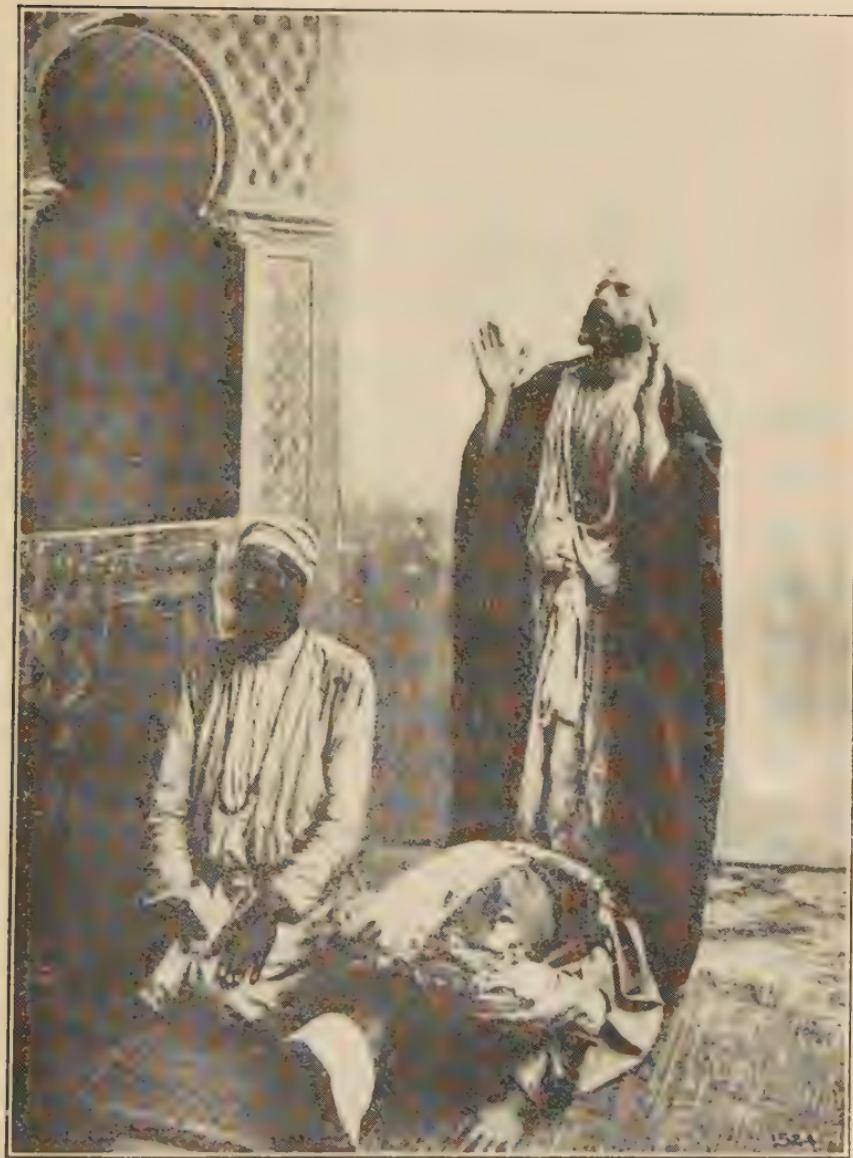
A dense crowd of Moors opposed the landing, among them great black men with thick lips and white teeth and fierce blood-shot eyes, at first very terrifying to their white enemies. Their

chief method of defense was by hurling stones at the invaders, thus knocking off the head-pieces of the armored men, wounding and disabling them. But they were no match for the lancers, bowmen and warriors of Portugal. Soon the city was captured with the loss of only eight Portuguese, although many were wounded. Then followed the sacking and plundering of the town, for in those days victorious armies were turned loose to do as they would.

Ceuta had the wealth, beauty and luxury of Moorish cities, all very strange and astonishing to the rude peasants of Portugal. In the wild search for gold, silver and jewels they ripped, tore and broke everything that stood in the way. They cared nothing for the floors of mosaie, the paneled ceilings, the carved marble basins, fountains and pillars; nor for the snow-white linen or silken sheets or beautiful furniture. Soon the streets were strewn with fragments of mosaie, furniture and tapestry and priceless carpets, soiled with spilled cinnamon and pepper, stained with oil and wine, and covered with wheat and rice. The city was quickly emptied of its inhabitants, who gathered on the outskirts to bemoan their losses and to lament the destruction of their homes.

On the next day the great mosque of Mohammed was consecrated as a Catholic church and a solemn Christian service was held. Then followed the blast of trumpets, and the day closed with a glorious ceremony during which the King made his three sons knights, each bearing unsheathed the sword his mother had given him. A garrison was left to defend the city and the fleet joyously sailed off for Portugal, to gladden the hearts of friends and relatives with stories of the victory and with the show of stores of plunder. The fleet had been away only forty days.

So ended the taking of Ceuta. It was a telling blow against the Moslem power by Christian Europe, and it would make cheering news to all Christians everywhere, alarmed as they were at the approach of the Moslems at the other end of Europe. But the taking of Ceuta did not lead to the further conquest of Africa



Victor Animatograph Co.

MOHAMMEDANS (MOSLEMS) AT PRAYER

Facing Mecca, the birthplace of Mohammed. White Moor (Arab) standing,
two black Moors kneeling.

by Portugal, as Prince Henry had hoped. Trade left the city to go elsewhere, and without the control of the country behind it the city was of little value. It would be too difficult and too costly to attempt the conquest of this back country. The Moors gathered to defend it and to threaten the recapture of the city, which had always to be kept in a state of defense. The King realized that the conquest of the Moorish country in Africa was too great a task for Portugal. He refused to make any further assaults upon it, much to the disappointment of Prince Henry. This Prince therefore turned his attention to exploration and discovery on the sea, while his brother Prince Peter went off upon his ten-year pilgrimage to the Holy Land.¹

QUESTIONS

1. To what country did King John and his three sons belong?
2. Who were the Moors? Were they Negroes? Were they civilized? If so, from whom had they taken their civilization?
3. Had the Moors ever conquered Spain? Did the Moors hold any part of Spain at this time? Can you find any stories of the conflict between the Moors and Christians in Spain?
4. Where did the Moorish cities in Africa get their wealth?
5. Had the Moors been of any use to the Europeans? Explain.
6. Can you find the story of Mohammed and his religion?
7. There is a very interesting story about another son of King John. It is that of Prince Ferdinand at Tangier. You may find it in "The Golden Age of Prince Henry the Navigator," or any other good book about Prince Henry.
8. Why were there plagues in these times?
9. How long had gunpowder been used in Europe, and what kind of guns were there at this time?
10. What is Morocco like today, and who holds Ceuta?
11. On an outline map of Europe (which may be had for a few cents) outline and color Portugal, Aragon, Castile, Granada, Morocco. Show the location of Lisbon and Ceuta.

THE PILGRIMAGE OF PRINCE PETER OF PORTUGAL TO THE HOLY LAND, 1418-1428

Because travel was so slow in those days, and because he had so much to see, Prince Peter was away ten years on his pilgrimage. The account of his travels will be of great help to us because it takes us over Europe in the time of Prince Henry, and makes us somewhat acquainted with certain important places, as well as some things the people of Europe were then thinking about. Like the last, this story belongs partly to the Middle Ages just closing. Prince Peter was a Christian knight, and like all good Christians in the Middle Ages, he wished to make a pilgrimage to some holy place. None was more sacred than the tomb of Christ in Palestine.

But the Prince had another reason for his pilgrimage which belongs to the Modern Age of rival nations. He was a patriotic Portuguese. His able father had not only trained his sons to the knightly ideals of chivalry, but also in loyal devotion to the glory of Portugal. Portugal was a small country hemmed in by powerful neighbors. It could hope to grow further only by conquest in Africa or by trade oversea. Prince Edward, the oldest son, was to take the throne of his father. Prince Henry was already deep in his plans for the growth of Portugal on the sea and by way of Africa. He wished to know all he could about the distant parts of the world, and especially about Africa and how it was connected with the East.

Now Prince Peter believed that he could help his brother by gathering knowledge about the East while on his travels in that direction. Certainly he could visit Venice and learn from the Italians what they knew of the East, with which they had so long traded. Then he might also find the famous Prester John, in whom his brother Henry was so much interested.

All Europeans had heard rumors of this Prester John, although they did not know quite who or where he was. He was supposed to be a great Christian prince who ruled over a vast empire

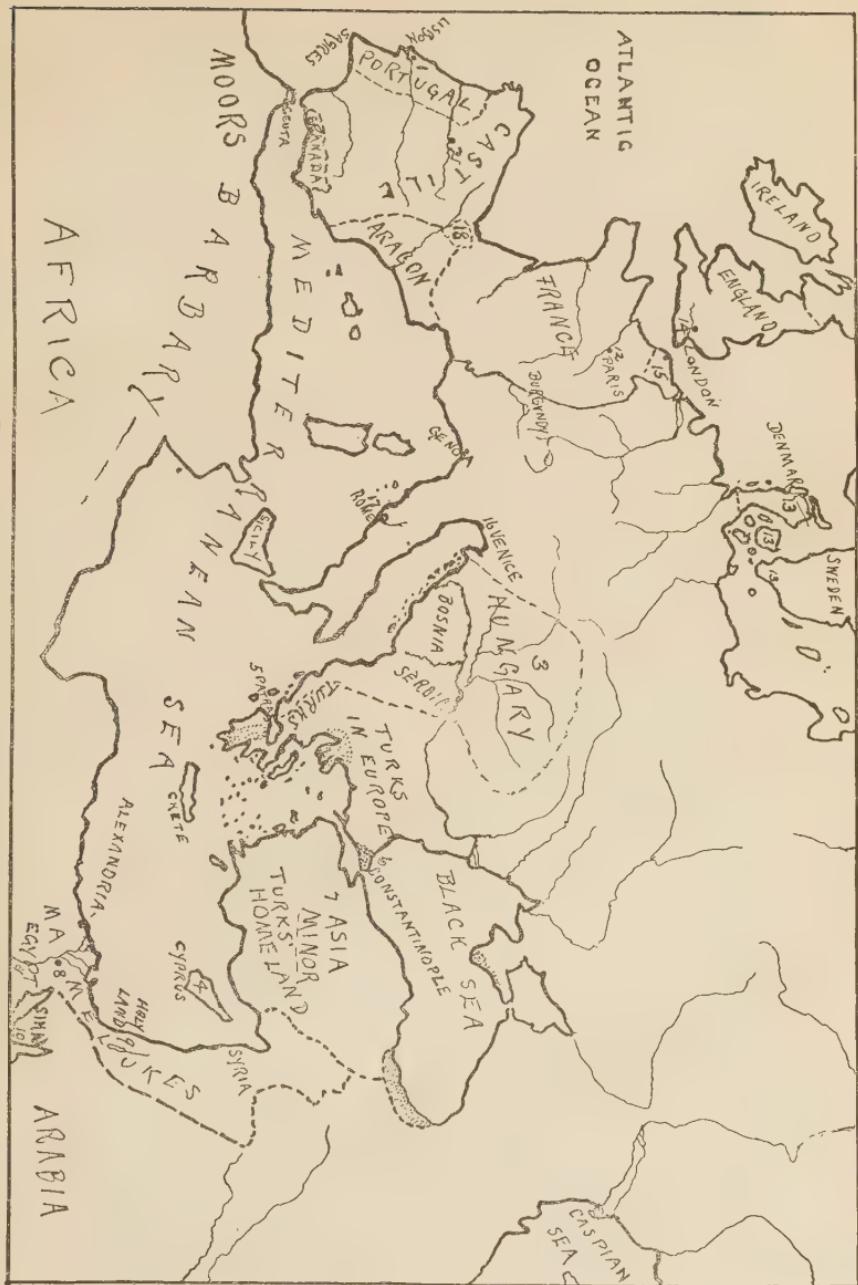
somewhere in the Eastern lands. It was said his scepter was solid emerald, and that he was attended by seven kings, sixty dukes, and a different count each day in the year. The beasts in his kingdom were said to be dragons and monsters. He was very powerful, and was supposed to have led a crusade to rescue the tomb of Christ from the infidel Mohammedans. Prince Henry and his brother felt sure that if this great Christian Prince could only be found, he would be glad to trade with other Christian princes, and to join with them in a grand assault upon the enemies of Christianity, who had already entered Europe from Asia and were gradually conquering the Eastern European countries. This old tale of Prester John probably came from stories of Abyssinia in Africa, which was still a Christian country, although all the countries round about it had been converted to Mohammedanism.

So you see that Prince Peter was not only a Christian knight upon a holy pilgrimage, but a loyal Portuguese as well, thinking of how his travels might be made to benefit his country. Let us now follow the narrative of his journey with the help of the map on the opposite page.

Prince Peter was now twenty-six, two years older than Prince Henry. He started on his journey in the year 1418. He took with him twelve companions, in memory of the twelve apostles. One of the twelve was Gomez de Santo Estevam, and it is from his book that we learn about their adventures.

They began their journey on horseback, going straight to Valladolid, where the Prince of Castile was at the time. Here they were received with great pomp. When they again set out on their journey, the Prince of Castile and a magnificent company of horsemen escorted them for a league on the way outside Valladolid; and there Prince Peter was presented with a gift of 25,000 gold pieces.

In time they came to the court of King Sigismundo of Hungary, at the other end of Europe. The whole weight of the



invading Turkish armies was now centered upon Sigismundo and his kingdom. At this critical period he received the visit of the Portuguese Prince, coming across Europe with his escort of noblemen in search of knightly adventure. It was not strange, therefore, that when the adventurers saw how things were, they eagerly offered their swords to the Emperor, asking to be allowed to join his army. Sigismundo accepted their help, giving to the Prince a yearly sum of 20,000 ducats, together with some lands. Prince Peter accompanied the King to defend his eastern boundaries against the Turks, and fought also in his wars in Germany. Apparently the Prince remained four or five years in Germany, till finally he decided to leave the court of Sigismundo and start once more on his journey to the Holy Land.

Sailing towards Cyprus, probably from Venice, Prince Peter began his journey to the Holy Land, following the old route of the Crusaders. On arriving at Nicosia, the capital of Cyprus, the Prince landed to pay his respects to the reigning king, only to find that the sultan of Egypt had defeated the king the year before, had taken him prisoner and carried him off to Egypt.

They were received by the mourning queen, his wife, who addressed them thus: "Friends, whence have you come?" To which, on their replying, she said, still weeping: "Truly, it is a blessing from Heaven that the Portuguese kingdom is so near, and that we can help one another; thus the enemies of our Christian Faith will be less powerful." This she said, echoing the fear in all Europe at that time of the all-conquering Turk, for everywhere they felt his coming. But the Prince could be of little help to the stricken queen, for at that time, when all the Christian nations of Eastern Europe were keeping guard in fear of the Turk, each thinking only of its own possessions, what could a few knights do?

Leaving Cyprus and the queen, therefore, in her sorrow, the Prince and his companions made for the all-powerful Court of the great sultan of the Turks, encamped then with his army at Patras in the Gulf of Lepanto, bringing with them letters of pro-

Painting by Andrea Vicentino

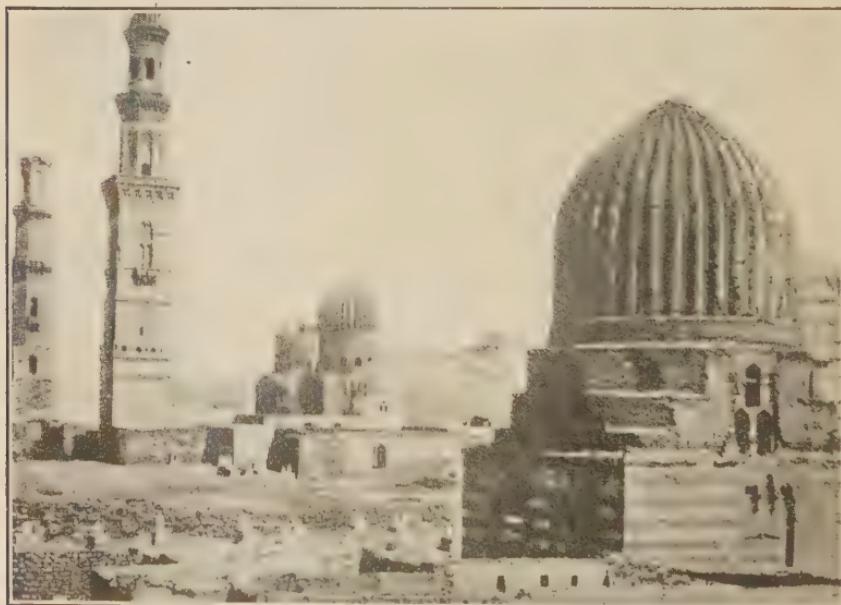
THE BATTLE OF LEPANTO

For 250 years after the time of our story the Turks kept on trying to fight their way into Europe. They entirely controlled the Eastern Mediterranean. This is a picture of the greatest sea-fight between Europeans and the Turks. It took place 150 years after Prince Peter's pilgrimage and marks the beginning of the decline of the Turkish power, for the Turks were defeated.

From Weil's Navy of Venice



tection from Venice, and paying twenty-six gold pieces for permission to travel in the sultan's lands. To Constantinople, behind its walls and moats, gay with continual festivities, and still in the hands of Christians, they now journeyed. Then crossing to Asia Minor, the Prince and his followers set out upon the sandy deserts with only the vaguest notion of the route. They traveled on camels, each carrying four men, with their bread, water, honey, figs and raisins, together with four or five sacks of dates,



From a photograph

Victor Animatograph Co.

TOMBS OF THE MAMELUKE SULTANS AT CAIRO

the food of the camels. They lost their way in the mountains and returned again to the shores of the Mediterranean, and from there they sailed to Alexandria.

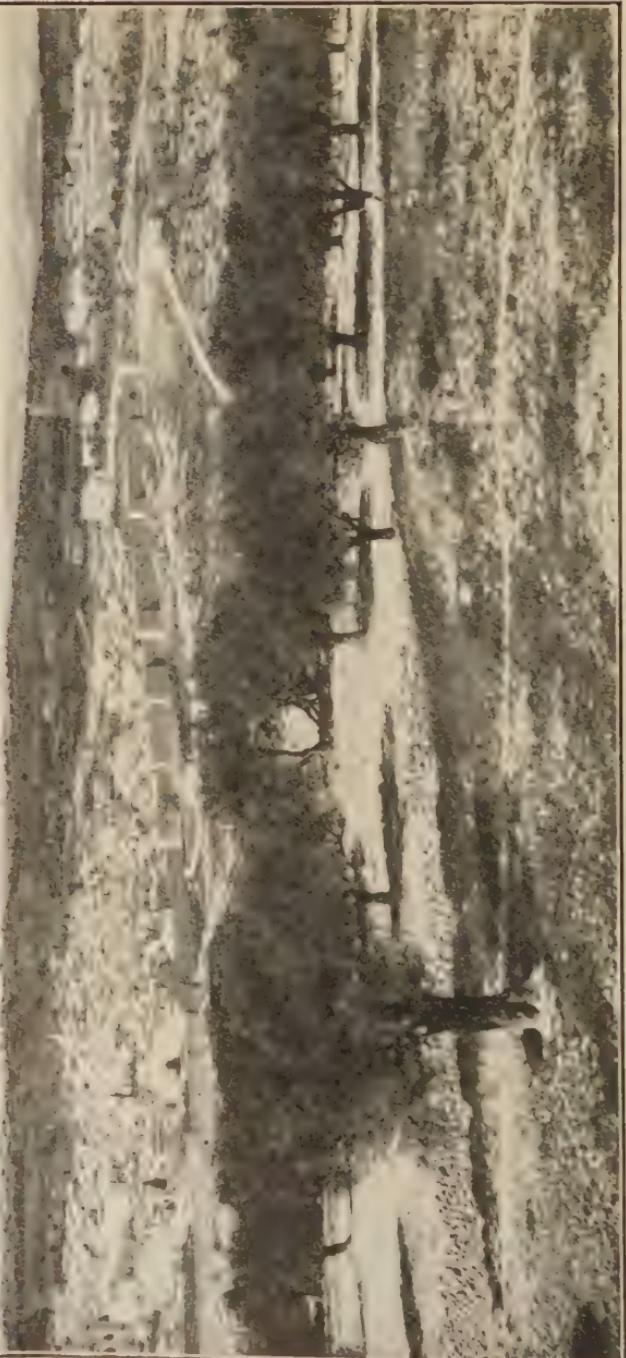
Wishing to proceed to Palestine through Egypt, it was necessary to obtain letters of safe conduct from the sultan of Egypt; and Estevam tells us that they remained fourteen days in Cairo

for this purpose, and that the ruler of Egypt questioned them at great length about the European countries, and especially Spain.

From Cairo they started overland to Jerusalem by the beaten caravan track that even today passes in a straight line eastward through the northern parts of Sinai. The caravan track wound through a country inhabited by savages who went about naked and fed on herbs and raw flesh, wandering among the mountains and deserts, attacking any travelers whom they thought weak enough to plunder. Half way across the peninsula of Sinai, the caravan track turns northward, dividing into two, one following the coastline to Gaza, the other going over the hills to Judea on its way to Jerusalem. It was along this latter road that Prince Peter and his companions now entered the Holy Land.

Jerusalem was then about a third smaller than in the time of the Romans, when Christ was crucified. Swarthy Jews in their white robes and long beards jostled against fair Armenians in striped white and blue turbans, and thick-lipped, half-clad Blacks of Africa. Walking along the streets one could see Armenian nuns in their black veils and long robes, begging for alms as they swept the streets so the pilgrims might walk barefoot in comparative comfort. Prancing on horseback through the crowded, narrow byways, in white turban and cloak striped with purple and red, would come an Arab, armed with dagger, hatchet and dangling sword, himself proud, haughty, almost ignoring the crowd of unbelievers who blocked his path. Bare-armed, bare-legged Syrians moved through the throng in their sheep-skin caps and black cotton shirts, armed with bow and arrows, dagger and curved sword. Arabian women followed, dressed in spacious blue robes, wearing headcloths gay with gilt and silvered discs, ear-rings and nose-rings of agate, lapis-lazuli and green jasper. Everywhere were crowds of children, naked and happy, their foreheads tatooed with colored stars, playing contentedly, wriggling in and out of the throngs in the crowded, dusty, evil-smelling streets.

Amid such surroundings Prince Peter and his company entered

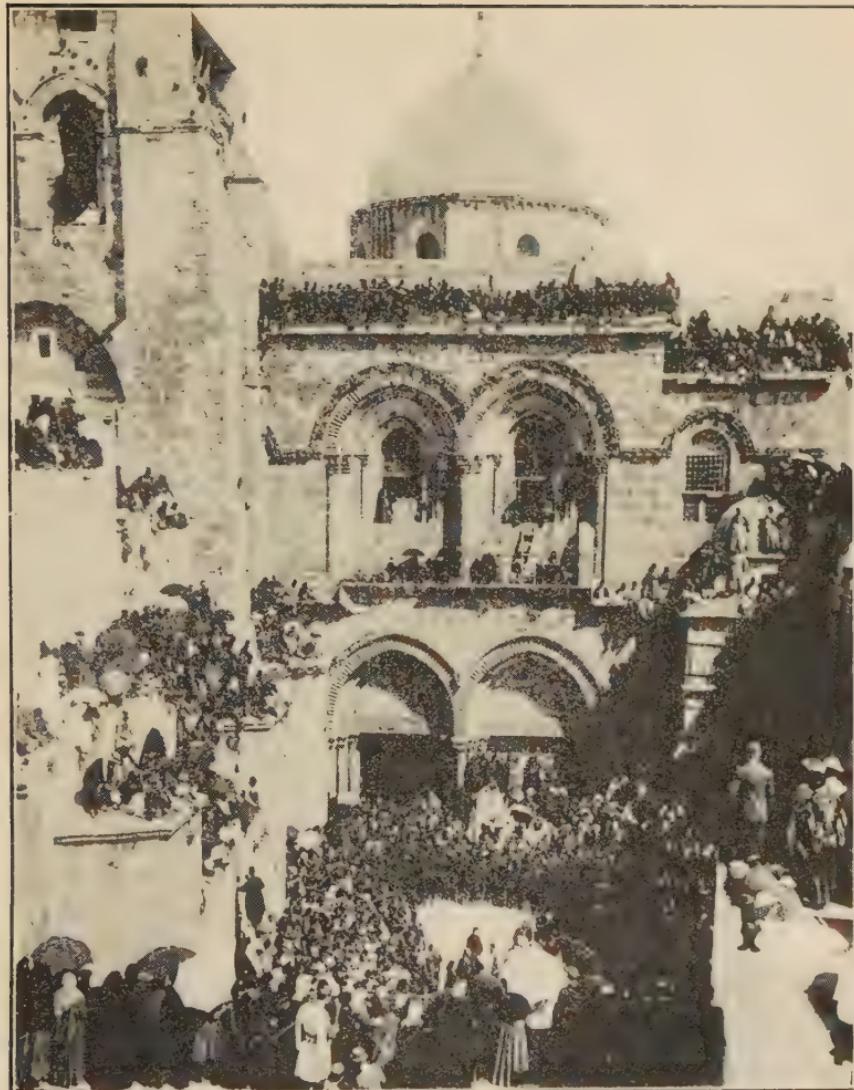


From a photograph

JERUSALEM TODAY SHOWING THE ANCIENT WALLS AND TOWERS

In the lifetime of Christ Jerusalem belonged to the Roman Empire. When the Empire became Christian the city was improved, and the sacred places were marked with shrines and churches. After several hundred years it was captured by the Arabians who were followers of Mohammed. During the Middle Ages the Crusaders from Europe tried to rescue the city from the Arabians, and for some ninety years held it as a Christian kingdom. At the time of Prince Peter's visit the city was held by the Sultan of Egypt who was Mohammedan. Afterwards the Turks of Asia Minor captured it and held it until the last great war, when it was taken by the British, who are now its guardians.

Keystone View Co., N. Y.



From a photograph

Ewing Galloway, N. Y.

**EASTER SERVICE AT THE ENTRANCE OF THE CHURCH OF THE
HOLY SEPULCHRE**

The appearance of the Church today. A church was first built here by the Romans to mark the tomb of Christ, about 300 years after His death. It has many times been damaged by war and fire, and as often rebuilt and altered, so it is not just as Prince Peter saw it.

Jerusalem, putting up in the part of the city set aside for Christian pilgrims. First they went to the Holy Sepulchre, and entering they prayed beside the twelve monks who guarded it. At the Sepulchre the chief monk himself personally conducted Prince Peter and his knights, admitting them to the Tomb of Christ, which was guarded by a Moor, to whom they paid twenty cruzados [Portuguese coins] before entering. Above the Sepulchre there was a chapel, scarcely large enough to admit three people; and here, according to a custom set up by the Moslems to recall their triumph over the Crusaders, each person entering had to submit quietly to a blow in the face from the Moor in attendance.

Having visited the Sepulchre, the Prince and his knights, like other pilgrims, knelt and prayed at all the sacred places. Proceeding beyond the north of Palestine, they probably reached the mountain ranges of the Lebanons, and were compelled to turn back. Unable to reach the coast in this direction, they returned to Egypt. On the way, at Mount Sinai, they visited the tomb of St. Catherine, guarded by 180 monks.

THE RETURN TO EUROPE

When the Prince's caravan arrived at Cairo they found there, according to Estevam, a new sultan. He was a Castilian. To the astonished Prince the new sultan of the Mamelukes told his story. He had been taken prisoner in his youth during a fight with the Moors of Granada. Later on he had been educated as a Moslem and at last wandered to Egypt, where he had been enrolled in the sultan's bodyguard. In time he had been made sultan. This new sultan received the Prince's party with open arms, even allowing them to be accompanied on their travels by his own guards.

It is difficult to be certain what direction the party now took. It seems, however, that they traveled up the Nile. They were still in search of Prester John. Failing in their search they turned back to Europe.

Through Europe Prince Peter traveled leisurely from south to north, studying for some time at the University of Paris, and in all probability going as far north as Denmark. From there he went to England, where he was honored with the Order of the Garter. At the end of December, 1425, the Prince embarked at Dover and sailed to Ostend, visiting Flanders to meet Philip, Duke of Burgundy. He met the Duke at the Castle of Wynendale, where a hunt had been prepared in his honor, and later the City of Bruges held a tournament, and a reception in the Senate House, followed by a ball. Evidently Bruges was determined to entertain the friend of their duke. From Flanders the Prince went through Hungary to Venice, perhaps on business, certainly to gather information about the trade of that Republic. For while there he collected such maps and information of discoveries on the sea as he knew would help the ambitious plans of his brother Henry.

VENICE IN HER GLORY

The Republic of Venice was then at the height of her glory. For the previous ten centuries the Venetians had controlled the trade of the Western world. Their position on the Mediterranean had enabled them to defy both Arab and Turk. Now, resting on her interlacing canals, with her 10,000 gondolas black as ink passing each other in their silent, gliding traffic below her fifty bridges, she presented to the traveler an appearance as dazzling as it was strange. The splendor of her palaces, the reflection of her marble buildings in the water, the colors of her stained-glass windows bewildered him. Her silent waterways, without the rumble of other great cities, seemed strange to the ear of the visitor. Her market-places were a continual feast of color. On one crossing was a fair where all kinds of precious cloths were shown for sale. In endless bazaars jewelry, furniture, perfumes and spices, brocades, ivories and all the products of the East and West, including colored manuscripts and the famous cut-glass of Venice, were being displayed on every hand.

All distant commerce then met at Venice; her ships commanded even the Turkish shores; and her merchants had reached even to the fabulous East.

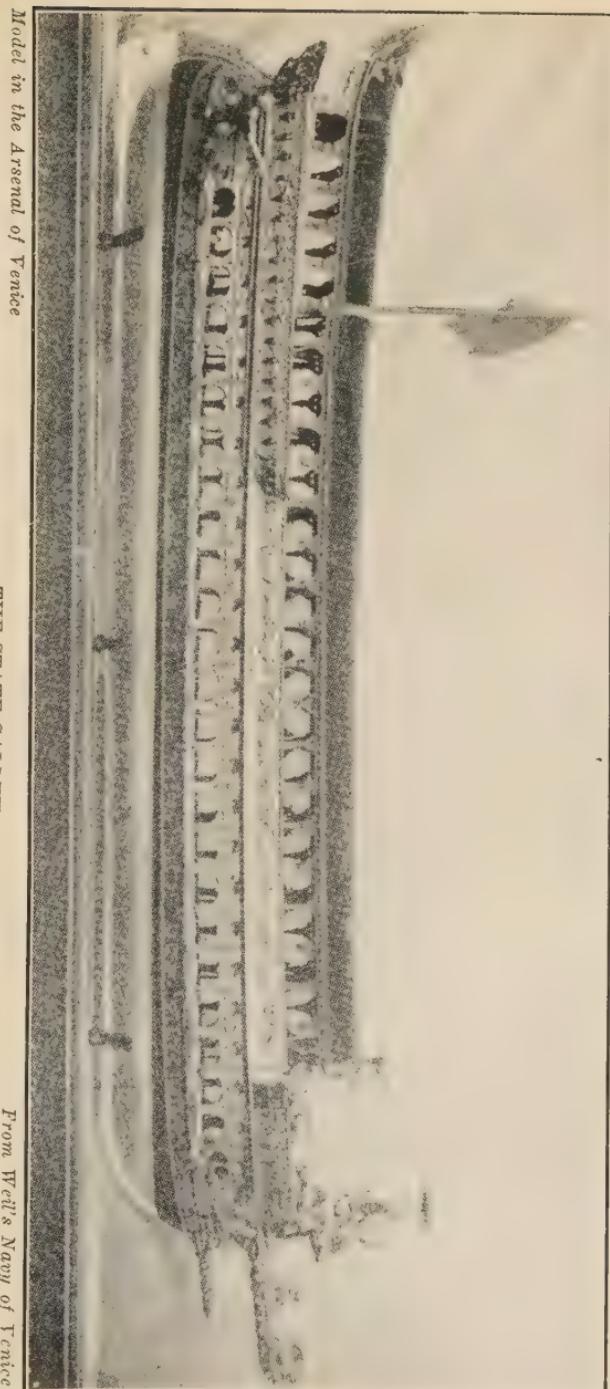
It was into this wonderful city that Prince Peter now entered. He was escorted by 300 horsemen; and the Republic sent four ambassadors to meet him. The Doge, with the city's nobility, awaited him in the State Galley of the Republic, surrounded by a magnificent fleet of flag-covered gondolas and barges manned by soldiers. Royally they entertained the Prince and his suite, loading them with gifts, presenting him with hundreds of splendid silks, velvets and brocades, in that wealth of color and workmanship for which Venice had become renowned throughout all Europe.



VENICE IN 1600

From an old print

Venice was founded at the beginning of the Middle Ages as a place of refuge from the invading barbarians. It was built on a group of small islands in a shallow gulf protected from the sea by a broken peninsula. The water-ways between the islands were made into canals which took the place of streets, gondolas being used instead of horses and wagons. During the Middle Ages Venice became exceedingly rich from its trade with the Old East and the north of Europe. For centuries it was the most important and most powerful city in Europe. Notice the war-galleys in the picture.



Model in the Arsenal of Venice

THE STATE GALLEY

From Will's Navy of Venice

Prince Peter was received at Venice in the great state galley, like the one in the picture. It was called The Bucentaur. The Bucentaur was neither a war-galley nor a trading vessel, but a larger one kept for great state ceremonies only. There were two decks. On the upper deck, which ran the whole length of the vessel, were seated the Doge, who was the head of the government, the state officials and the guests. This deck was covered with crimson velvet edged with gold braid and tassels. The walls were gilded and all about were beautiful figures and ornaments. On the lower deck were the rowers, handling 48 oars, with four men to an oar. It was regarded as a privilege to be a rower in this magnificent vessel.

THE PRINCE VISITS THE POPE AND RETURNS TO PORTUGAL

Leaving Venice the Prince traveled to Rome, laden with gifts. But of all the presents he took with him, nothing was half so precious as the account of Marco Polo's travels, with which the Republic presented him, and the maps of distant regions, precious treasures which would fill his brother Henry with the keenest satisfaction.

In May, 1428, the Prince was in Rome, where the Pope received him as he was accustomed to receive the kings of England, France and Portugal. From Rome he went overland directly to Spain, meeting near Valladolid the king of Navarre. Thus at last he arrived at his own country, after ten years of distant and continuous travel. It could have been said, indeed, that in those days he had seen the whole world. And everywhere he went he brought honor to his country. Returning, he had brought with him a wealth of experience and information, more widespread and more valuable than any one had hitherto done. He found on his arrival his aged father in the childhood of old age, his brother Prince Henry wholly taken up with his plans of discovery and conquest, and Prince Edward alone carrying the burdens of the government. It was, indeed, high time he returned to give a helping hand to his country.¹

QUESTIONS

1. Who was Prince Peter and why did he make his pilgrimage? Why did he visit Venice?
2. Who were the Turks and why were the Christians of Europe afraid of them? (See map, p. 13.)
3. What was the home land of the Turks? What Christian lands had they conquered? (See map, p. 13.)
4. Why were the Prince and his companions eager to join the armies of King Sigismundo?
5. Were the Moors and the Turks the same people? What did they have in common?
6. Who controlled the trade-routes to the Indies at this time?

What difference did this make to Europeans?

7. To whom did the Holy Land belong at the time of Prince Peter's visit? (See map, p. 13.)

8. How many years had there been since the time of Christ?

9. Why were there so many kinds of people in Jerusalem? Who were some of these, and where were their home lands?

10. What three great religions did these people have among them? How did the followers of these three religions feel toward one another?

11. Were these religions related to one another? Explain.

12. Who had built the Christian churches and monuments about the sacred places in Palestine?

13. What had Prince Peter accomplished on his long pilgrimage?

14. On your map outline and color England, Denmark, Flanders, France; also Hungary, the Christian lands in Europe occupied by the Turks, as well as their home land; the lands held by the Mameluke Turks of Egypt. Show the parts still held by Christians which were then surrounded by the Turks. Show Cairo, Jerusalem, Constantinople, Patras, Valladolid, Venice, Rome, London, Alexandria.



OLD ALEXANDRIA IN EGYPT

From an old print

THE INVENTION OF PRINTING



Painting by Hellemacher

Victor Animatograph Co.

THE FIRST SHEET FROM THE PRESS

During the Middle Ages in Europe there were very few books because each had to be written out by hand. This was often done in the monasteries by the monks, who learned to make very beautiful books of this kind. The first kind of printing was made by carving a picture on a block of wood with some words telling about the picture, and then pressing a piece of paper upon the whole inked wood block. Printing really began with the invention of separate metal types for the different letters, which could be put together over and over again for different books, and with the use of a press for making the impression on paper. This happened in Europe, either in Germany or Holland, about the middle of the fifteenth century, about twenty-five years after the pilgrimage of Prince Peter. Soon there were printers in all the European countries, and books became much cheaper and more plentiful.

Printing helped to spread the ancient learning of the Greeks and Romans. Everywhere men became more intelligent, for they could now read for themselves and did not have to depend upon a few learned men to tell them things. Printing was one of the greatest achievements ever made in the history of the world, and helped very much in bringing about the more intelligent Modern Times in which we live. The first printed book was a Bible, and one of the first printers, if indeed he was not the first, was Gutenberg, who had a printing establishment in Mainz, Germany. Cotton and linen paper had some time before come into use in Europe. In the Middle Ages the writing was on parchment, the dressed skins of certain animals.

Printing had a long history in China before it was known in Europe. Paper was invented in China as early as the second century after Christ. For a long time seals and stamps were rubbed with ink and stamped on paper. The first known printers of books lived in the eighth and ninth centuries. For the next four centuries there was much printing in China from wooden blocks, and in the same period men were experimenting with movable clay and wooden types. Movable types of bronze, cast in moulds, were being used in Korea a half century before Gutenberg. It is not yet known for certain whether the idea of printing came to Europe from China, but it seems likely. Cotton paper, however, is known to have come from the Chinese through the Arabs.

THE BOOK PRINCE PETER BROUGHT TO HIS BROTHER PRINCE HENRY: "THE TRAVELS OF MARCO POLO"

We can well imagine the keen satisfaction Prince Henry had in reading and studying the books and maps his brother had brought him. The book of Marco Polo must have interested him most, for it told a great deal about the geography of Asia, and of those older and richer parts of the world with which European merchants had long traded, but which they had never seen. A few missionaries and travelers had been to the Far East before Marco Polo's visit, but no one had described its wonders so clearly. If we did not know how scarce books were in those times, and that printing had not yet been invented, we might be surprised that the royal family of Portugal had not already seen this book. For it had been written more than a hundred years before Prince Peter's pilgrimage. Some of the things in the book are not correct because Marco Polo learned of them only by hearsay. But on the whole his description is quite accurate.

The Polos had been one of the many wealthy families of merchants in Venice who had long been engaged in the trade with Asia. They had a trading station at Constantinople, and from that city the two brothers—one of them the father of Marco—had been led by business and curiosity from one place to another, until they had reached the court of the Grand Khan, ruler of the great Mongolian Empire of northeastern Asia. The Khan had been much pleased with the Polos, and being interested in improving his people, had asked the brothers on their return to Italy to have the Pope send him missionaries of the Christian religion. Several years passed before the brothers were able to return to the Khan's court. When they did make their journey there again, they took Marco with them, who was then only seventeen years old. They were four years on the way. What happened to Marco in Cathay (China) you will learn from the parts of his book which are given below. This book was

written after he had returned to Venice from his many years of service with the Grand Khan. Three years later he had been placed in command of a Venetian war-galley which was captured in a fight with a fleet of the rival city of Genoa. It was while he was a prisoner in that very city in which Columbus was to be born that his book was written. It was eagerly read by Europeans, who were very curious about the strange places he told about. You may follow Marco Polo on his journey, both to and from Cathay, on the map on page 280. The extract which follows begins with the arrival of the party at the court of the Grand Khan.



From Yule's Marco Polo

MARCO POLO IN PRISON DICTATING THE STORY OF HIS TRAVELS

THE RECEPTION OF THE POLOS BY THE GRAND KHAN

[*From Marco Polo's Book*]

“Upon their arrival they were honorably and graciously received by the Grand Khan, in a full assembly of his principal officers. When they drew near to his person they paid their respects by prostrating themselves on the floor. He immediately commanded them to rise, and to tell him about their travels. To their story he listened in silence. Upon observing Marco Polo and inquiring who he was, Nicolo Polo made answer, ‘This is your servant, and my son’; upon which the Grand Khan replied, ‘He is welcome, and it pleases me much,’ and he caused Marco to be enrolled among his attendants of honor, and on account of their return he made a great feast and rejoicing. As long as they remained in the court of the Grand Khan, they were honored even above his own nobles. Marco was held in high esteem by all belonging to the court. He adopted the manners of these people and learned to speak in four different languages, which he could also read and write.

“Because of Marco’s learning, and in order to test his ability, the Grand Khan sent him upon an important matter of business, and Marco conducted the affair with so much wisdom and prudence that his services became highly acceptable to the Khan. When he observed that the Grand Khan took pleasure in hearing accounts of whatever was new to him about the customs and manners of people, and about distant countries, Marco tried, wherever he went, to obtain correct information on these subjects, and made notes of all he saw and heard. In this way he obtained knowledge of many unknown things about the eastern parts of the world, which he carefully wrote down.”

MARCO POLO’S DESCRIPTION OF THE CAPITAL CITY

“Upon the return of the Grand Khan to his capital, he holds a great and splendid court, which lasts three days, during which he gives feasts and otherwise entertains his people. The number of people who dwell in the city is greater than the mind can

comprehend. Vast crowds of merchants and other strangers are ever arriving and departing. To this city everything that is most rare and valuable in all parts of the world finds its way. No fewer than a thousand carriages and pack-horses, loaded with raw silk, enter daily; and gold tissues and silks are manufactured to an immense extent.

“At the White Feast it is customary for the Grand Khan and all who are subject to him in his many provinces to clothe themselves in white garments, which, they believe, are signs of good fortune. Upon this day all his people send him valuable presents of gold, silver and precious stones, with many pieces of white cloth. They also exchange among themselves presents of white articles, saying, ‘May good fortune attend you through the coming year.’ It is the custom in making presents to the Grand Khan, for those who are rich enough, to furnish nine times nine of each article. By such means his majesty receives at this festival no fewer than a hundred thousand white horses. On this day all his elephants, amounting to five thousand, are shown in procession, covered with housings of cloth richly worked with gold and silk in figures of birds and beasts. Each of these supports upon its shoulders two coffers filled with vessels of gold and silver and other things for the use of the court. Then follows a train of camels, in like manner laden with various articles of furniture. When the whole are properly arranged, they pass in review before his majesty, and form a pleasing sight.”

MARCO POLO HEARS OF THE ISLAND OF CIPANGO (JAPAN)

“Cipango is an island in the eastern ocean about fifteen hundred miles from the mainland. It is of considerable size; its inhabitants have fair complexions, are well made, and are civilized in their manners. Their religion is the worship of idols. They are governed only by their own kings. Few merchants visit the country. Those who have been there say that the entire roof of the king’s palace is covered with a plating of gold, as our churches are with lead. The ceilings of the halls are of the same

precious metal; many of the apartments have small tables of pure gold. In this island there are pearls also, in large quantities, of a pink color. There are also found there a number of precious stones."

"The sea in which the island of Cipango is situated is called the Sea of Chin. The pilots and mariners who sail upon it, to whom the truth must be known, say this sea is so great that it



From Yule's Marco Polo

THE FLEET OF THE GRAND KHAN

contains no fewer than seven thousand four hundred and forty islands, mostly inhabited. It is said that of the trees which grow in them, there are none that do not yield a fragrant smell. They produce spices and drugs in great abundance. It is impossible to estimate the value of the gold and other articles in the islands. The vessels engaged in the trade there do not reap large profits, being obliged to take a whole year to a voyage, sailing in the winter and returning in the summer. In calling this sea the Sea of Chin, we must understand it, nevertheless, to be a part of the ocean."

THE LONG JOURNEY HOME BY SEA AND LAND AFTER
SEVENTEEN YEARS OF SERVICE WITH THE
GRAND KHAN

“There were fourteen ships, each having four masts. Among these vessels there were at least four or five that had crews of two hundred and fifty men. On them were Nicolo, Maffeo and Marco Polo, when they had first taken their leave of the Grand Khan, who presented them with many rubies and other handsome jewels of great value. He also gave directions that the ships should be furnished with stores and provisions for two years.

“After sailing about three months they arrived at an island named Java, where they saw many things worthy of attention. They were then eighteen months in the Indian seas before reaching the territory of King Arghun of Persia. They had lost by death about six hundred persons. When they set out by land the king of this territory furnished them with four golden tablets, which directed that they should be treated with honor throughout his dominions, and from many places they were protected by two hundred horsemen.

“Pursuing their route, they at length reached the city of Trebizond on the Black Sea, from whence they proceeded to Constantinople, then to Negropont, and finally to Venice, at which place, in the enjoyment of health and abundant riches, they arrived safely in the year 1295. They offered up their thanks to God who had now been pleased to give them rest from their weary travels after having preserved them from so many dangers.”²

Because of their long absence, their strange garments, and their weather-beaten faces, the Polos had difficulty in making themselves known to their friends when they returned to Venice. Here is the story of what happened:

“They invited a number of their kindred to an entertainment, which they took care to have prepared with great splendor; and when the hour arrived for sitting down to table, they came forth all three clothed in crimson satin. And when water for the hands

had been served, and the guests were set, they took off those robes and put on others of crimson damask, while the first suits were by their orders cut up and divided among the servants.

"Then after partaking of some of the dishes, they went out again and came back in robes of crimson velvet; and when they had taken their seats, the second suits were divided as before.



From Yule's Marco Polo
THE RETURN OF THE POLOS

When dinner was over, they did the like with the robes of velvet, after they had put on dresses of ordinary fashion.

"These proceedings caused much wonder and amazement among the guests. But when the cloth had been drawn, and all

the servants had been ordered to retire, Messer Marco rose from the table, and going into another chamber, brought forth the three shabby dresses of coarse stuff which they had worn when they first arrived.

“Straightway they took sharp knives and began to rip up some of the seams, and to take out of them jewels in vast quantities, such as rubies, sapphires, carbuncles, diamonds and emeralds, which had all been stitched up in those dresses in so artful a fashion that nobody could have suspected the fact.

“Now this exhibition of such a huge treasure, all tumbled out upon the table, threw the guests into fresh amazement. And now they recognized that these were in truth those honored and worthy gentlemen of the family of Polo.”²

QUESTIONS

1. How long before Prince Peter’s pilgrimage had Marco Polo’s book been made?
2. Was the book first written or printed? Why was this?
3. Why were Europeans so much interested in the book?
4. What territory was included in the empire of the Grand Kahn? (See map, p. 280.) What lands are these today?
5. Many of the things he told about Marco Polo saw for himself. Other things he learned from hearsay only. Did you notice any errors in the parts you read?
6. Mention some things that would especially interest a man like Prince Henry, who was a student of geography and exploration.
7. Would you care to read further about Marco Polo? Besides his own book, which you may find in any public library, there are some written especially for young people.
8. Why do we include a story of Marco Polo’s book in the history of America?
9. Show on an outline map of the world the route taken by the Polos to and from Cathay. Locate Quinsay, Zaiton, Cipango, Java, the Spice Islands.

THE SEARCH FOR AN AFRICAN SEA ROUTE TO THE INDIES: PRINCE HENRY THE NAVIGATOR

While Prince Peter was on his long pilgrimage, his brother, Prince Henry, was already sending his ships down the west coast of Africa. Prince Henry was an extremely ambitious man, not so much for himself as for the glory of Portugal. He had been much disappointed when the King, his father, had forbidden any further expeditions against the Moorish cities on the north



From a photograph

Keystone View Co.

It was such caravans as these that aroused the curiosity of Prince Henry about the lower parts of Africa.

coast of Africa, for what he really wanted was to conquer the Moorish country for Portugal. It was then that he gave himself heart and soul to exploration. He had heard of Moorish caravans which brought ivory, gold and slaves to the Mediterranean from distant rivers and coasts in southern Africa, and he was eager to know more of those regions. Perhaps Portugal could obtain this trade by sea, and there was no telling how far her ships might go in that direction. They might even reach into the rich trade of the East if the waterway could be found about Africa that some of the learned geographers believed in.

The King had made Prince Henry governor for life of the most southern province of Portugal. He might have lived the life of a prince at the brilliant court of his father, or have led great armies in Europe as he was invited to do, but his mind was so filled with his plans for new discoveries that he left all this behind him, and much to the amusement of his father's courtiers, retired to a desolate spot at the extreme corner of his province, located on a rocky cape that stood out into the Atlantic. This was as close as he could get to the region of his dreams, and here he could despatch and receive his ships without delay. You may find this place on the map on page 13. It was afterwards called Sagres. The cape on which it stood had from ancient times been called the Sacred Promontory, for it stood at the end of the inhabited world, so the learned men of old had believed.

Soon the Prince's sailors returned with astonishing news of islands they had found far out in the Sea of Darkness. These were the Madeiras. You will find them on the map on page 83. They are about 350 miles from the coast of Africa, and over 500 from Lisbon in Portugal. Prince Henry had heard vaguely of such islands, for they had been known to the ancient scholars, and had been more recently visited. But they had been well-nigh forgotten. Islands in the Sea of Darkness were not quite what the Prince was looking for, but they were real discoveries and very encouraging ones at that. Now he had something definite to show the scoffers at his father's court.

But the best thing about these early discoveries was that they greatly helped to weaken the faith men still had in the old-fashioned ideas of the ancient scholars about the ends of the earth. For the learned men of Prince Henry's time were still under the spell of these ancient scholars. They hardly dared as yet to do their own thinking. The ancients had said that the land to the west came to an end near the Pillars of Hercules (the Strait of Gibraltar). Beyond were a few vaguely known islands, waters without limit, fogs and terrible monsters. Now Prince Henry's sailors had found these regions to be no different from any others.

If the ancients were in error about this, why should they not be mistaken about many other things? Prince Henry was encouraged to continue his exploring and to do his own thinking about the unknown parts of the world.

And now he became more than ever interested in the west coast of Africa, and in the chance it held of finding Prester John and of reaching the East. It was a great task, this task of reaching the East by sea, greater than he realized, for Africa was vastly larger than he thought, and it was to take more than his lifetime for the Portuguese seamen to find the southern cape. The maps and books his brother had brought him also helped to kindle his interest in this scheme, and to lead him to doubt the truth of the ideas of the ancient scholars. They had said that at the eastern end of Asia were swamps and marshes, and now Marco Polo had shown that in this, too, they were mistaken, for he had told of a great sea there, the Sea of Chin, and had even sailed upon it.

As to the shape of Africa there were different opinions among the learned men. One thought there was nothing but land to the south as far as one might go. In this case, of course, there was no hope of ever reaching the Indies by sea. Others thought Africa was surrounded by the ocean. Nobody knew. On page 38 is a very interesting map that was not made by the learned men, but by the seamen of the Mediterranean. Such maps were made by putting together what the more intelligent seamen had learned from the use of the compass on their many voyages. These maps were made by painting the coastlines in colors on hides. Because they were only used by the sailors to guide them on the sea, they did not often show the places on the land, except towns and interesting things near shore. These were often pictured in a fanciful way to adorn the maps. The map we have shown here is perhaps the most remarkable of its kind. It was made some sixty-five years before Prince Henry began his explorations. You will see that it is an excellent map of the Mediterranean Sea, and that the guess about the shape of Africa is a remarkably

good one, when one remembers how little was then really known about it. Doubtless it was some such idea of Africa that encouraged Prince Henry to keep on sending his caravels down the west coast, and to believe that some day his captains would return to tell him that they had found a cape that led the way to the eastern sea.



From Beazley's Henry the Navigator

A GOOD GUESS AT THE SHAPE OF AFRICA

This map or chart was made about 65 years before Prince Henry began sending his caravels down the west coast of Africa. This chart has many little spaces for the names of the different parts of the land. Why are the coastlines of northern Europe so poorly drawn? Would such an idea of Africa encourage Prince Henry to try to find a sea-route around Africa to the Indies?

So Prince Henry set to work harder than ever. He gathered about him at Sagres such men of learning as he could find—astronomers, geographers, mathematicians, map and instrument makers. He built there an observatory and an arsenal. He set up a library and a school for seamen, in which he taught them the use of the compass and all such other aids to navigation as were then known. He improved his ships and constructed his



From a drawing by Hon. H. N. Shore, R. N.

Courtesy of Chapman & Hall, Ltd.

SAGRES: WHERE PRINCE HENRY CARRIED ON HIS STUDIES

famous caravels, so much lighter and faster than the ships of his time. He made Sagres the center of the science of navigation.

At Sagres, then, or at the port of Lagos close by, for thirty years, the Prince sent out and received his expeditions to the west coast of Africa. Each expedition was urged to go a bit farther along the coast than the one before. You may have an idea of the fame of the station of Sagres from the brief account which now follows of how an Italian came to sail in the service of the Prince.

HOW A VENETIAN CAME INTO THE SERVICE OF PRINCE HENRY

“Now, I, Luigi Ca da Mosto, who had sailed nearly all the Mediterranean coasts, once leaving Venice for France, but being caught by a storm off Cape St. Vincent, had to take refuge in the Prince’s town near the said cape, and was here told of the glorious and boundless conquests of the Prince, from which came such gain that from no traffic in the world could the like be had.

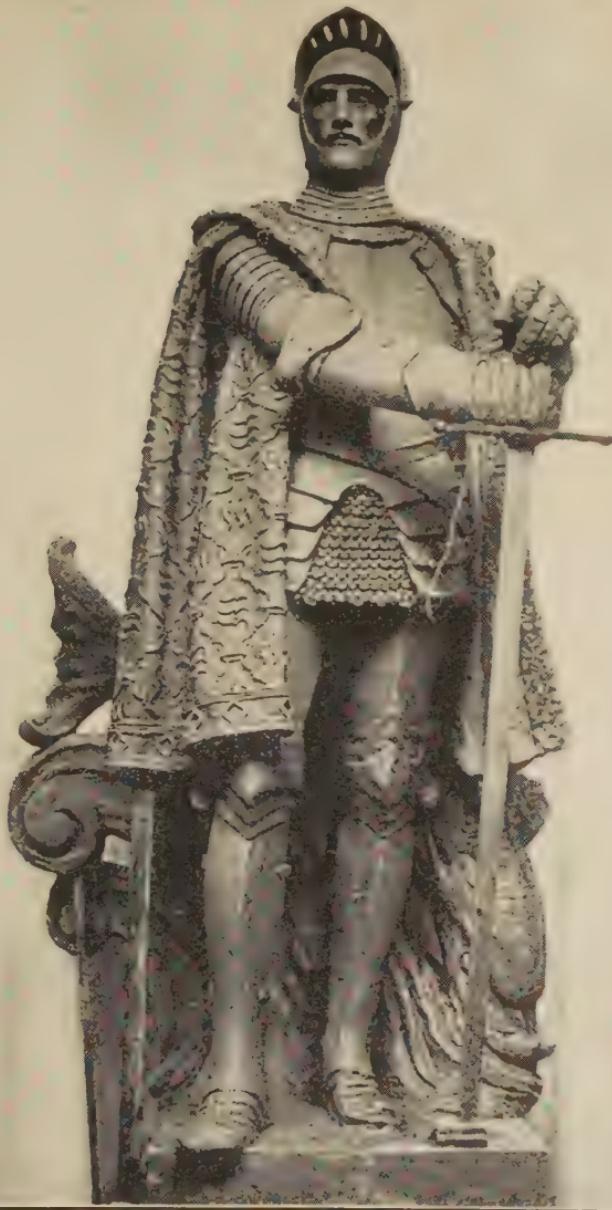
“This did exceedingly stir my soul, eager as it was for gain above all things else; and so I asked to be brought before the Prince to learn if I might gain leave to sail in his service, for since the profit of this voyage is subject to his pleasure, he doth regard his rights with great care.

“My age, my vigor, my skill equal to any toil, above all my passionate desire to see the world and explore the unknown, set me all on fire with eagerness. And especially the fact that no countryman of mine had ever tried the like, and my certainty of winning the highest honor and gain from such a venture, made me forward to offer myself. I only stayed to enquire from veteran Portuguese what merchandise was the most highly prized among the people of the farthest South, and then went home to find the best light vessel for the ocean coasting that I had in mind.”³

This captain came into the service of Prince Henry long after the beginning of his expeditions. The farthest point reached when the Prince first sent out his caravels was Cape Bojador. You will find it on the map on page 83. What difficulty he had in getting his sailors to pass this dreaded cape you will better understand from reading the account that follows, from the pen of an old Portuguese chronicler named Azurara.

THE FEARFUL CAPE BOJADOR AND HOW IT WAS PASSED
BY GIL EANNES, 1434

“So the Prince began to make ready his ships and his people, but although he sent out many times, not only ordinary men but



From a photograph

Keystone View Co.

FIGURE OF PRINCE HENRY ON THE NEW YORK CUSTOM HOUSE
REPRESENTING PORTUGAL

men who were foremost in war, yet there was not one who dared to pass that Cape of Bojador and learn about the land beyond it as the Prince wished. And to say the truth, this was not from cowardice or lack of good will, but from the strangeness of the thing, and the wide-spread rumor about this cape that had been always believed by the seamen of Spain. ‘How are we,’ men said, ‘to pass the bounds that our fathers set up, or what profit can result to the Prince from the loss of our souls as well as our bodies—for by daring any further we shall become wilful murderers of ourselves. For beyond this cape there is no race of men; nor is the land less sandy than the deserts of Libya, where there is no water, no tree, nor green herb—and the sea so shallow that a whole league from land it is only a fathom deep, while the currents are so terrible that no ship having once passed the cape, will ever be able to return.’ And during twelve years the Prince continued steadily at this labor of his, ordering out his ships every year to those parts, not without great loss of money, and never finding any who dared to pass that cape.

“Now the Prince always received home again with great patience those whom he had sent out as captains of his ships in search of that land, never blaming them for their failure, but graciously listening to the story of the events of their voyage and giving them rewards, and then either sending them back to search again or sending other picked men of his household, with their ships well furnished and with promise of greater rewards if they added anything to the voyage that those before them had made. And at last after twelve years the Prince armed a vessel and gave it to Gil Eannes, one of his squires. And this man followed the course that others had taken; but touched by the self-same terror, he only went as far as the Canary Islands, where he took some captives and returned to the Kingdom.

“Now this was the year 1433, and in the next year the Prince made ready the same vessel, and calling Gil Eannes apart, charged him earnestly to strain every nerve to pass that cape, and even if he could do nothing else on that voyage, yet he should

consider that to be enough. ‘You cannot find,’ said the Prince, ‘a peril so great that the hope of reward will not be greater, and in truth I wonder much at the notion you have all taken on this matter—for you tell me only the opinions of four mariners who come from ports that are very commonly sailed to, and know nothing of the needle [compass] or sailing chart. Go forth, then, and heed none of their words, but make your voyage straightway, inasmuch as with the grace of God you cannot but gain from this journey honor and profit.’

“And so this man resolved not to return to the presence of his lord without sure tidings of that for which he was sent. And so he did—for in that voyage he doubled the cape, despising all danger, and found the lands beyond quite contrary to what he, like others, had expected. And although the matter was a small one in itself, yet on account of its daring it was reckoned great. On his return he was knighted and rewarded right nobly. And then it was that he related to the Prince all that had happened, telling him how he had ordered the boat to be put out and had gone in to the shore without finding either people or signs of them. ‘And since, my Lord,’ said Gil Eannes, ‘I thought that I ought to bring some token of the land, I gathered these herbs which I here present to your Grace, which we in this country call roses of St. Mary.’ Then after he had finished giving an account of his voyage, the Prince caused a vessel to be made ready, in which he sent out his cupbearer, and Gil Eannes as well with his ship, ordering them to return there. And so in fact they did, passing fifty leagues beyond the cape, where they found land without dwellings, but showing footmarks of men and camels.”⁴

THE CARAVELS OF PRINCE HENRY ARRIVE AT THE COUNTRY OF THE NEGROES, 1445

The passing of the fearful Cape Bojador was only the beginning of Prince Henry’s success in exploring the west coast of Africa. Year after year he continued to send out the caravels,

and steadily his captains returned to report that they had gone a little farther than those before them, and to tell of strange and interesting things. At last Diniz Diaz reached Cape Verde and touched the land of the Negroes. This land began at the river Senegal, which was then thought to be a western outlet of the great Nile River of Africa. The Nile in Egypt had, of course, been known to Europeans for centuries. About its head-waters and branches in Lower Africa they could only guess, as yet (see map, p. 83).

North of the Senegal was a dry and sandy country, the western end of the great Sahara Desert. These regions were occupied by people like the Moors but of a darker color. For this reason they were called the Tawny Moors. They traded by caravan in slaves, ivory and gold even so far as the Mediterranean. In religion they were Mohammedan. It was with these people that the Portuguese had had to do thus far in their exploration. In fact, until they met the Negroes Europeans had not had any direct dealings with savage people.

Let us now read what our old chronicler has to tell of the first contact with the true Negroes. A large fleet of caravels had come down the coast to punish the natives of an island who had killed a captain. When this had been done, certain of the leaders decided to go on to the land of the Negroes. This land was called Guinea, and the Negroes who lived there Guineas.

“Gomez Pirez, who was in the caravel of the King as chief captain, being a man of valor and authority, began to speak in this fashion: ‘You know right well the will of the lord Prince and how much he desires to know something of the land of the Negroes, and especially of the river of Nile; for which reason I am resolved to make my voyage to that land, and I purpose also to gain the most perfect knowledge I can of other matters. On this I place all my hope of the greatest reward I can gain on this voyage, for I know how the lord Prince will show me honor for it. And if any of the rest of you desire to keep me company

I will hold fast to all your plans so long as they be not outside this plan of mine.'

"And so six caravels, having set out, took their way along the coast, and pressed on so far, that they passed the land of Sahara, belonging to the Moors which are called Azanegues [Tawny Moors], which land is very easy to tell from the other below it, because of the extensive sands there and because of the great lack of water.

"Now these caravels came in sight of the two palm trees that Diniz Diaz had met with before, by which they understood that



OLD LISBON, PORTUGAL

From an old print

they were at the beginning of the land of the Negroes. And at this sight they were glad indeed and would have landed at once, but they found the sea too rough. And some of those who were present said afterwards that it was clear from the smell that came off the land how good must be the fruits of that country, for it was so delicious that, though they were on the sea, it seemed to them that they stood in some gracious fruit garden.

"And when the men in the caravels saw the first palms and lofty trees, they understood right well that they were close to the river of the Nile, at that point where it floweth into the western sea, which river is there called the Senegal. And so, as they were

going along, scanning the coast to see if they could discover the river, they perceived before them a certain color in the sea different from the rest, for this was the color of mud. And they thought that this might arise from shoals, so they took their soundings for the safety of the ship, but found no difference in this place from the others. And it happened that one of those who were throwing in the sounding lead by chance put his hand to his mouth and found the water sweet. 'Here we have another marvel,' cried he to the others, 'for this water is sweet'; and at this they threw a bucket forthwith into the sea and put the water to the test, all drinking of it. Thereat they made signs to the other caravels, and all of them began to coast in and look for the river; and they were not very long in arriving at its mouth.

"And when they were close to its mouth, the crew of the caravel of Vicente Diaz launched their boat and into it jumped eight men. And one of them looking out towards the mouth of the river, espied the door of a hut, and said to his companions, 'If you think well of it, let some of you land, and approach from behind these sand-banks, and if any natives are lying in the hut, it may be they can be taken before you are seen.' And while six of them were going thus bidden, even until they reached the hut, they saw come out of it a Negro boy, stark naked, with a spear in his hand. Him they seized at once, and coming up close to the hut, they lighted upon a girl, his sister, who was about eight years old. So these men entered the hut, where they found a black shield made of the hide of an elephant's ear.

"And when they had captured those young prisoners and articles of plunder, they took them forthwith to the boat. 'It were well,' said Estevam Affonso to the others, 'if we were to go through this country near here, to see if we can find the father and mother of these children.' And after they had journeyed a short way, Estevam Affonso began to hear the blows of an axe. 'Now,' said he, 'if I go softly and crouching down, I shall be able to capture this man by a sudden surprise; but do not be slow to come to my aid in case I need you.'

“And they agreeing to this, Estevam Affonso began to move forward, and what with the care he took in stepping quietly, and the intentness with which the Guinea worked, he did not perceive the approach of his enemy till the latter leaped upon him. And I say leaped, because Affonso was of small size and slender while the Guinea was of quite different build. And so Affonso seized him lustily by the hair, so that when the Guinea raised himself erect, Affonso remained hanging in the air with his feet off the ground. While those two were in their struggle, Affonso’s companions came upon them, and seized the Guinea by his neck and arms in order to bind him. And Affonso, thinking the man was now captured, let go of his hair; whereupon the Guinea shook off the others and began to flee. And it was of little use to follow him, for he could run faster than his pursuers, and he took refuge in a wood full of thick undergrowth.

“While the others sought him in the wood, the Guinea came to the hut and found his children gone, and began to look everywhere to see if he could catch any glimpse of them. And now appeared Vicente Diaz, the captain of the caravel to which the boat belonged, walking along the shore, who had not troubled to bring with him any arms except a boathook. And the Guinea, burning with rage as you may well imagine, made for him with right good will.

“Thinking that flight would not help him, Vicente Diaz awaited his enemy without showing any sign of fear. And the Guinea rushing boldly upon him, gave him forthwith a wound in the face with his weapon, with which he cut open the whole of one of his jaws, in return for which the Guinea received another wound but not so great a one. And because their weapons were not sufficient for such a struggle, they threw them aside and wrestled; and so for a short space they were rolling over one another, each one striving for victory. And while this was proceeding, Vicente Diaz saw another Guinea coming to the aid of his countryman, and for fear of him he had to loose his hold of the first. At this moment came up the other Portuguese, and the

Guinea now free again, began to put himself in safety with his companion, running like men accustomed to it and little fearing the enemy who attempted to pursue them. At last our men turned back to their caravels, with the small booty they had already stored in their boats. . . .

“And the caravels afterwards being directly over against Cape Verde where Diniz Diaz had been the other year, saw an island in which they found fresh skins of goats and other things, from which they understood that other caravels had gone on in front of them, and they found the arms of the Prince carved upon the trees, and also the letters which compose his motto. ‘Of a surety,’ said one, ‘I doubt if since the power of Alexander and of Caesar, there has been any prince in the world that ever had the marks of his conquest set up so far from his own land.’”⁴

Prince Henry died in 1460. Although a sea-route to the East had not yet been found, enough had been done to make the discovery of a southern cape only a matter of time. Meanwhile trading stations were set up on the west coast of Africa, and the Portuguese were obtaining much wealth from slaves and gold. From the map on page 280 you will see that the explorations were continued after the death of the Prince. Twenty-eight years later the three ships of Bartholomew Diaz were blown by a gale far beyond the end of Africa. When the storm had passed Diaz turned again to the north and east [Why did he turn east?] and struck land beyond the cape without knowing where he was. As he continued his course he found the coastline turning more and more to the northeast, and then he realized that the long-sought sea-route to the Indies had at last been found. But the sailors of Diaz were weary and insisted on returning to Portugal. On the way back they passed the Stormy Cape, as Diaz called it; but when the Portuguese king heard the good news he said, “No, let us call it the Cape of Good Hope, for now we may well believe that we have found the ocean route to the Indies.”

Columbus was in Lisbon when Diaz returned and must have

been mightily interested in his voyage. He had already asked the Portuguese king to send him westward to the Indies, but had been refused. Five years later news came to the astounded king of the success of Columbus in reaching the Indies by the western route for Spain, and we are told the king greatly blamed himself for not accepting the services of Columbus for Portugal. However, he could follow up his own partial success by the African route, so great preparations were set on foot for an expedition that should complete the route that Diaz had carried so far. This was to be the expedition of Vasco da Gama, which we shall tell of in its proper place.

QUESTIONS

1. Who was Prince Henry the Navigator?
2. For what is he chiefly honored today?
3. Why did he send his captains to explore the west coast of Africa?
4. What part of Africa is now called Guinea?
5. Why did the captains decide to go to the land of the Negroes? Why did they wish to capture Negroes?
6. Were the Tawny Moors savages? From whom had they received their religion?
7. How was it that Europeans had not known savages at first hand before they met the Negroes?
8. Why did the Prince have his captains carve his arms and motto on the trees?
9. Who first rounded the Cape of Good Hope? How many years was this after the death of Prince Henry?
10. What is the country about the Senegal River like today, and to whom does it belong?
11. Locate on your map: Sagres, the Madeira Islands, the Canary Islands, the Azores, Cape Verde and the Cape Verde Islands, Cape Bojador, the Senegal River, the Cape of Good Hope.

SHIPS AND SAILING IN THE TIME OF PRINCE HENRY THE CARAVELS

The stories we have just had tell something of the remarkable doings of Prince Henry's caravels. Let us now see what these vessels were like and how they were managed. For the purpose of discovery on the open sea a kind of vessel was needed that could sail long distances in any kind of weather as fast as possible. They need not be very large, for the business of discovery did not require large storage space as the merchant vessels did, or room for war material and hundreds of men as did the warships of the time. But of course they had to be fast sailers and easily handled. So Prince Henry improved the older type of sailing vessel and brought into existence his famous caravels.

You will see from the illustrations on the next pages how unlike these caravels were the ships of the Middle Ages. There were two important kinds of larger vessel in those times. One was the galley driven by oars with the help of sails. The galley is one of the oldest kinds of vessels known. It was in this kind of vessel that the Venetians had done their trading and fighting on the Mediterranean for centuries. The galley could be easily handled, and served very well for fairly short voyages in good weather. In stormy weather it was practically useless, and it was of course not at all suited for long voyages of discovery.

You will see from the illustration that the old-fashioned sailing ship was not much better. It was heavy and clumsy and slow, and if you will now compare these two kinds of vessel with the caravel in the third illustration, you will not be surprised that the caravel did such remarkable things, for it seems to be made for its work. Later on the caravel was enlarged for carrying merchandise and guns, and grew less swift and more clumsy. It was the rapidly growing use of cannon on shipboard, requiring more space and several decks, that made later warships so extraordinarily high and unwieldy.

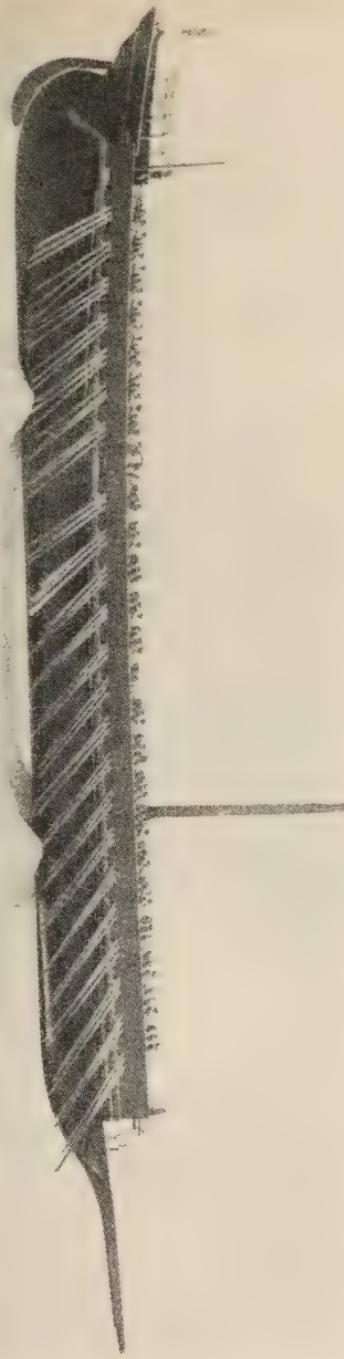
Model in the Arsenal of Venice

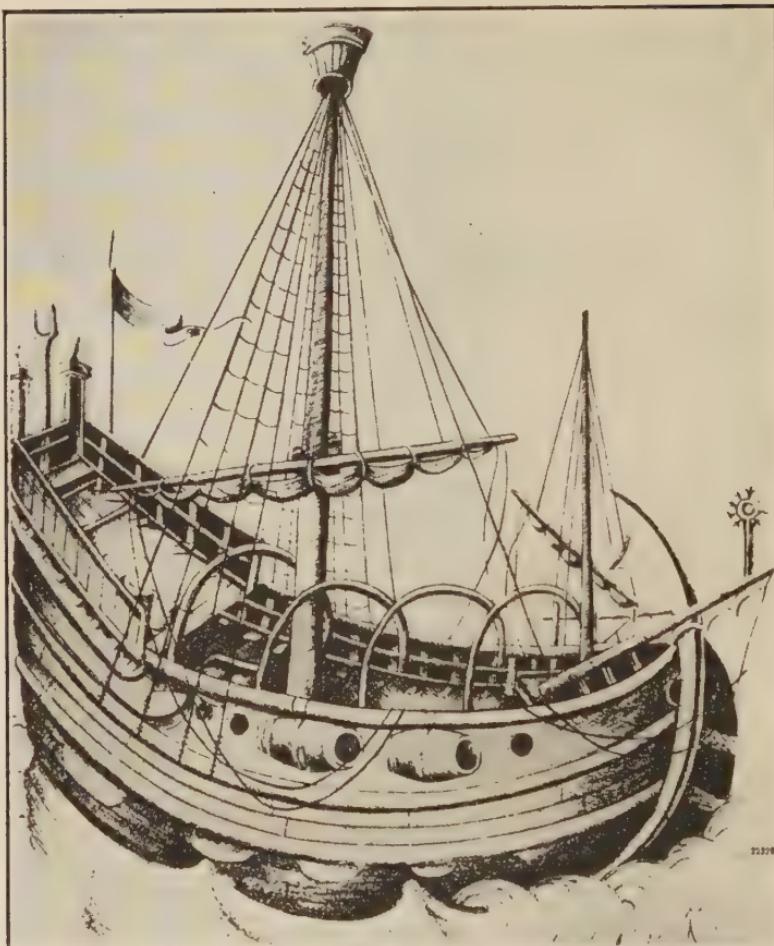
A TRIREME

This is a model of a Venetian galley. In its long history—for it had been used since ancient times—there had been many changes in the form of the galley and there were different kinds. We shall speak of a galley for carrying merchandise. A Trireme was a form in which three men rowed at each bench, each man with an oar of different length, one seated slightly above the other so as not to interfere with him. This, of course, required making the strokes at the same time.

The merchant galley of Prince Henry's time used by the Venetians had about 150 rowers, 75 on each side. There were therefore 25 benches on each side, three men to a bench. Besides these men were others who handled the two or more sails, and the officers. Such a merchant vessel had to be ready for pirates and enemies. It carried carpenters, calkers, crossbowmen, archers, slingers and others, to repair and defend it. There was a long beak at the bow for ramming other vessels. As yet the rowers were freemen. Later on slaves were used.

From Well's Navy of Venice





From an old print

Victor Animatograph Co.

A SEA-GOING SHIP OF THE MIDDLE AGES

The hulls of the ships of the Middle Ages were broad and tubby and somewhat crescent-shaped. At either end were two awkward structures called the forecastle and sterncastle. In earlier times these had been built high above the rest of the ship so that the warriors could fight from them with their lances and bows and arrows. Later they were built into the ends of the vessel, like the sterncastle in this figure. No forecastle is shown here. We still speak of the fore part of a ship as the forecastle. This ship has a mainmast with a fighting top at its head, carrying a square sail. There is also a small foremast. There were ships of the later Middle Ages with three masts.



Model in the Arsenal of Venice

From Weil's Navy of Venice

A CARAVEL

This is a model of a Venetian caravel. Although the Venetians copied the Portuguese caravels they altered them, so this is not an exact model of Prince Henry's vessels. His were usually about 65 to 100 feet long, and from 20 to 25 feet in width. They had three masts without rigging tops and yards, with lateen sails stretched upon long oblique poles hung from the mast-head. When these sails were spread they grazed the gunwale of the vessel, while the points bent in the air according to the direction of the wind. They usually ran with all their sail, driving before the wind. When the sailors wished to change their course they merely trimmed sail.

It was with this type of vessel that the Madeira and Canary islands were reached, and even the Azores, a thousand miles or more out in the Atlantic. We are told that years before the death of Prince Henry he had sent out 51 of these vessels along the coast of Africa. It should be remembered that these caravels had a strong influence on later ship-building, and that later ships were more or less caravel-like in shape. The ships of Columbus and Vasco da Gamma were caravels varying in size.

SOME THINGS PRINCE HENRY TAUGHT HIS CAPTAINS ABOUT SAILING

We have said that Prince Henry had at Sagres a school for the training of his captains in the best ways of sailing ships known in his time, and that he improved these methods where he could, with the help of the learned men he there gathered about him. We shall now speak of some of these things.

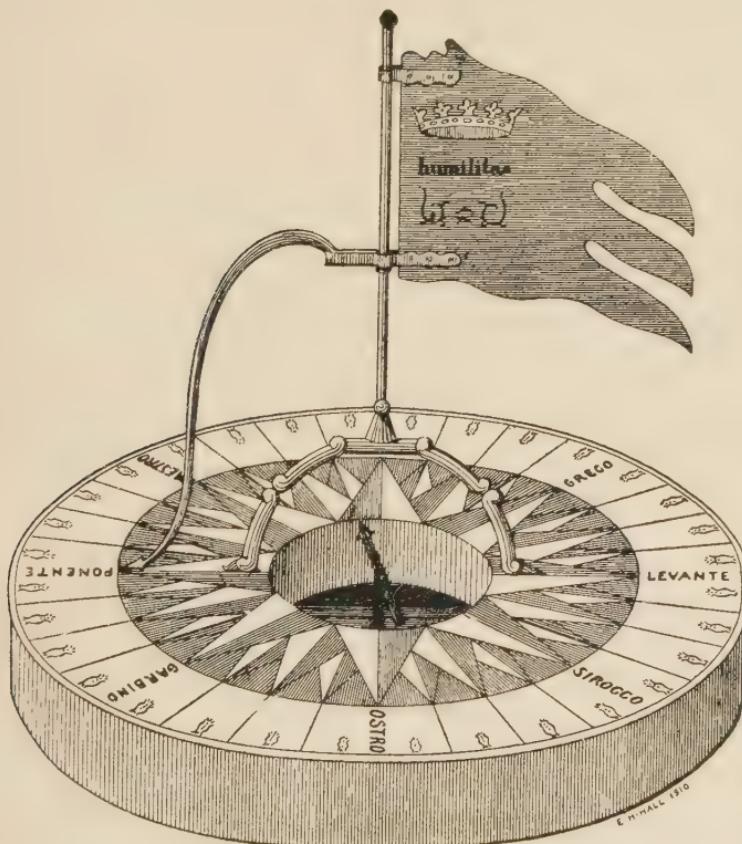
THE MARINER'S COMPASS

Before the days of the compass sailors could guide their vessels only by keeping close enough to the shore to see where they were going, or by following certain winds that usually blew in the same direction. At night of course they could tell something by watching the stars. When the compass came into use they were able to tell in what direction they were going, out of sight of land, day or night, rain or shine. This is because the compass needle always points to the north.

No one knows where the idea of the compass came from. It is very old. First men had to discover the lode-stone, a kind of ore that has the power of drawing bits of iron to itself. Today we call such a thing a magnet. Then they had to learn that bits of steel or hardened iron when rubbed with a lode-stone behave in the same way. Then they had to notice that when a needle of such hardened iron is hung by a thread or floated on the water on a bit of cork or a straw, it always turns in such a way that one end points to the north and the other to the south. And finally, they had to think of using such a needle to guide them on the sea. So you see the idea of the compass is not so very simple, and it is not surprising that it should have come into use very slowly.

Europeans seem to have learned of the compass from the Arabians, perhaps at the time of the Crusades. An old form of the compass among the Chinese was a wooden figure of a little man holding a piece of magnetized iron in his hand, placed at the bow of their boats. Another old form was the water-compass. This was simply a bit of iron floating on an object in a bowl of

water, and was of course of little use except when the sea was quiet. In the century before Prince Henry the needle was hung upon a fixed pivot in a box, with the points or directions shown on a card just above it. Here is a part of a letter telling about the compass, written about 160 years before Prince Henry began his explorations. It was written by one learned man to another. Evidently the writer thought it would be a long time before the



WIND COMPASS OF THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY

The directions were named after the customary winds. When the compass was set so that the point of the needle was opposite the north point of the dial, the pointer of the weather vane showed the direction from which the wind blew. (Drawn by Dr. Edward Hagaman Hall after a drawing in Pigafetta's "Voyage," and reproduced through his courtesy.)

sailors of Europe would be willing to use the compass on account of its strangeness. By the time of Prince Henry, however, the wiser seamen were using it, and the Prince took good care to see that his captains understood it and had one with them on their voyages. The letter:

“I did not fail to see Friar Bacon as soon as I arrived, and (among other things) he showed me a black ugly stone called a magnet, which has the surprising power of drawing iron to it; and upon which, if a needle be rubbed, and afterwards fastened to a straw so that it shall swim upon the water, the needle will instantly turn toward the pole-star [the North Star]. Therefore, be the night ever so dark, so that neither moon nor star be visible, yet shall the mariner be able, by the help of this needle, to steer his vessel aright. The discovery, which appears so highly useful to all who travel by sea, must remain hidden until later times. Because no master dares to use it lest he should be called a magician; nor would the sailors venture out to sea under his command, if he took with him an instrument which carries so great an appearance of being made by some devil. A time may arrive when these ideas, which are of such great hindrance to the study of the secrets of nature, will be overcome; and it will then be that mankind shall reap the benefit of the labors of such learned men as Friar Bacon.”⁵

[Why does the magnetized needle point north and south? Can you bring a small compass to school and show how it is used?]

PRINCE HENRY TAUGHT HIS CAPTAINS HOW TO FIND THEIR LATITUDE

The equator is an imaginary line about the earth east and west just at the middle, half way between the north and the south poles. If you will look at any map (the one on page 280 will do), you will see several lines drawn across it east and west. These are called lines of latitude and are parts of circles reaching all about the earth at certain distances above and below the equator. At the right and left margins of the map are numbers showing

how many degrees each circle is above or below the equator. The number 20 at the end of the line means that every place on that line all about the earth is just twenty degrees from the equator.

Now we need to know what a degree is. Every circle can be divided into 360 equal parts. Each of these parts is a degree. Therefore if we think of a line drawn north and south around the earth and passing through both of the poles, we should have a complete circle of 360 degrees. Half way round the earth would be 180 degrees. One quarter way round would be 90 degrees. The distance, then, from the equator to the north pole is 90 degrees.

Now look again at the map for the line of latitude that circles the earth at 20 degrees above the equator; then for the one at 40 degrees above; and then for the one at 80 degrees above. Now you know what it means to say that any place, say an island in the ocean, is thirty-five degrees north latitude. Lines of latitude run across the land, as well. What is the latitude of your home, and just what does that mean?

You may have noticed on the map that lines also run north and south, crossing the lines of latitude. These are lines of longitude and are parts of circles running about the earth in this direction, all of which pass through the poles. These are also even distances apart. But since there is no equator to begin counting from, east and west, it is necessary to fix some line as the zero line. The line that is used for this purpose, by English-speaking people at least, is the line that passes from the north pole to the south pole through an observatory near London, England. Lines to the east of this zero line are in east longitude; those to the west are in west longitude. On the top and bottom margins of the map are the figures that tell the number of degrees each line is east or west of the zero line through London. Count the degrees east and west of the zero line on the map. All of this will be understood better with the use of a globe.

Now the compass tells in what direction a ship is sailing, but it does not tell where the ship is or where it should go to reach

a particular place. Suppose a ship is on fire in the ocean and wishes to send a message by wireless to other ships for help. It of course must tell just where it is. So the message gives its latitude and longitude. Where the two lines cross is just where the ship is. It is quite like saying that you live at the crossing of Sixteenth Street and F Street. If one knows where each of these streets is, and if they cross at right angles to each other, then all one needs to do is to find the place where the two streets meet. Just so the master of the ship that knows what his own latitude and longitude are can direct his vessel to any other point if he knows its latitude and longitude. Try to think of telling where you are at sea without the help of these two kinds of lines.

It is quite clear that mariners must have some way of learning just what their latitude is at any time. In the time of Prince Henry they made use of what we today should call very crude instruments. These were the cross-staff and the quadrant. The quadrant is pictured and described on pages 98 and 99. On the opposite page is a picture of a man of our own time dressed in a costume of the seventeenth century and using a cross-staff. The cross-staff in Prince Henry's time was not much different, and by studying the picture you will learn how it was used.

If you stood at the north pole the North Star would be straight over your head. Now if you had some way of moving down toward the equator, the North Star would drop behind you toward the horizon a little more each day you traveled. This is because you are moving away from the spot on the earth directly under it. By the time you had come to the equator it would be just at the horizon, and if you should go farther south it would of course disappear. Now suppose you start at the equator and move back toward the north pole. Each night the North Star will seem to rise higher in the sky, and the number of degrees it rises in the sky is the same number of degrees you are from the equator. Therefore if you had some way of finding the number of degrees the North Star is above the horizon at any place, you

would have the latitude of that place. This is just what the man in the photograph is doing. Try to understand this with a globe.

There is a notch at the top and also at the bottom of the shorter piece that slides back and forth upon the longer one. There is another at the end of the longer piece near his eye. The man moves the shorter piece back and forth until he can just see the



Model and photograph by Dr. Edward Harriman Hall—Reproduced through his courtesy
THE CROSS-STAFF

horizon through the notch at the lower end of the cross-piece and the North Star through the notch at the top of it. You will notice that the longer piece is marked with degrees. The man now looks to see the number of degrees shown on this longer staff at the point where the cross-piece is. This is the number of degrees he is north of the equator. Now he has his latitude. Other things may be done with the cross-staff but this will serve to illustrate them.

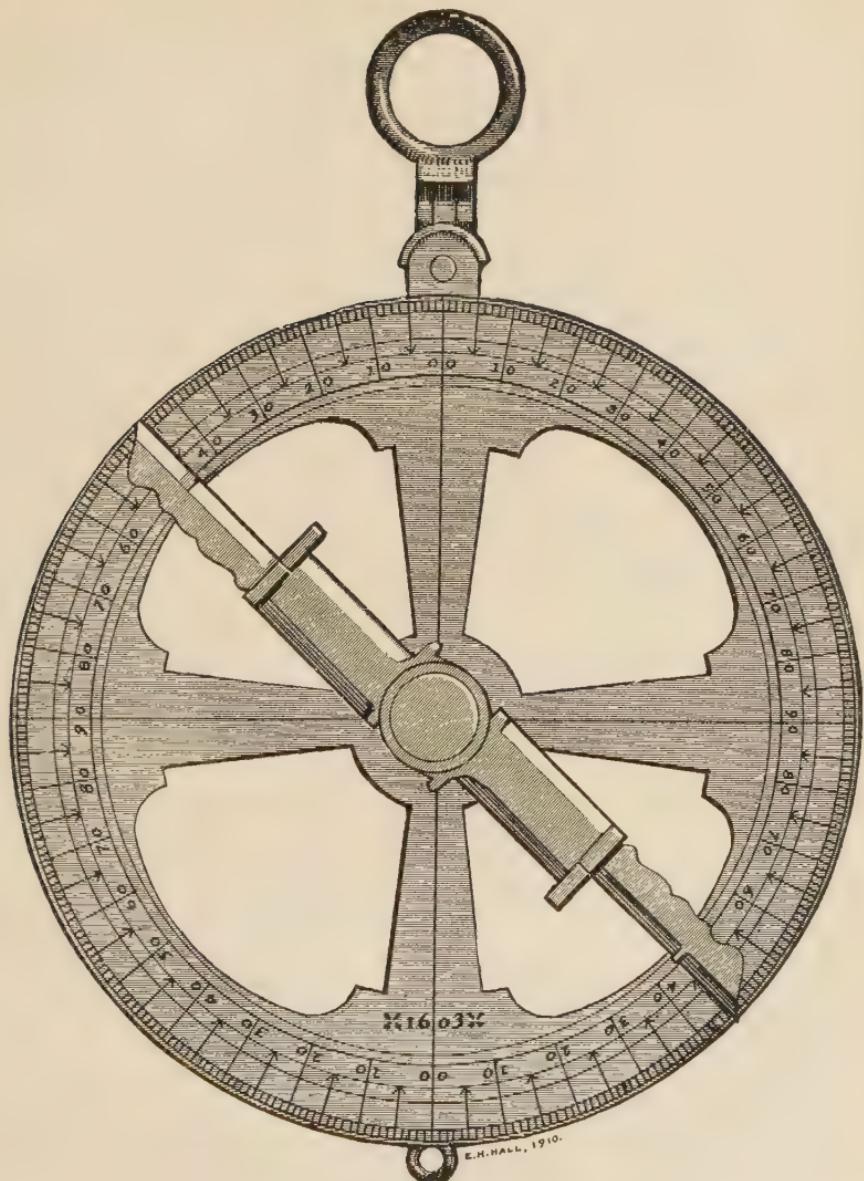
You may try this for yourself with a pair of drawing compasses. On a clear night lay one leg of the compasses on a level window-sill. Then sight along the other leg from the hinge and move it until it points directly at the North Star. Now divide a circle into 360 equal parts (one quarter of the circle will do), and see how many degrees you have between the points of the compasses. This number ought to be close to the latitude of your home. See if it is.

THE ASTROLABE

Besides the cross-staff and the quadrant there was a third instrument used in the later Portuguese discoveries for finding latitude. This was the astrolabe, an instrument that had been used on land for centuries. About twenty years after the death of Prince Henry, a learned man had adapted the astrolabe for use on the sea, and had shown how latitude could be found with it from the position of the noon sun. On the opposite page is a drawing of an astrolabe used by Champlain over a hundred years later. Some of these instruments were made of wood, but this was of brass, about a foot in width. Notice that 0 degrees is marked at the top and bottom of the circle, while 90 degrees is marked half way down on either side. The pointer is movable and happens to be set at about 45 degrees from the 0 point.

At exactly noon the astrolabe was hung up by the ring at the top. The pointer was then moved until a beam of light from the sun passed through both of two little holes, one on each hand of the pointer. Then the number of degrees was read on the circle just where the pointer indicated.

If you imagine a line passing through both the 0 marks on the circle, it would of course point to a spot in the heavens straight overhead. Let us suppose that the beam of sunlight is passing through both the little holes on the movable hand as it stands at 45 degrees in the picture. Then the noon sun is 45 degrees toward the horizon from the spot directly overhead. See if you can find out why this tells the latitude on March 21 and September 23.



THE ASTROLABE

(Drawn by Dr. Edward Hagaman Hall from the Champlain astrolabe in the private collection of Mr. Samuel V. Hoffman, and reproduced by permission.)

Find out why a number of degrees has to be added or subtracted to this on all the other days in the year.

PROBLEMS

The distance from the equator to the north pole on the surface of the earth is about 6215 English miles. About how many miles are there in each degree of latitude? About how many miles from a place twenty degrees north of the equator to another place thirty degrees north of it? Are all degrees of latitude equal in miles? Why is this? Why do we speak of English miles?

PRINCE HENRY'S CAPTAINS COULD ONLY GUESS AT THEIR LONGITUDE

You know that if it is twelve o'clock noon where you live, at places east of you it is already afternoon and at places west of you it is still morning. This is because the noon sun has already passed over the places on the east and has not yet come to the places on the west. Now in order to tell one's longitude one must be able to measure very closely these differences of time between places, and this requires a very accurate clock such as people did not have in Prince Henry's time.

When sailing east or west the masters in those days had to guess how far they had gone by watching the speed of the vessel. Sometimes they did this by throwing an object alongside into the water and noticing how quickly the ship passed it. Then they were able to make a guess as to how many miles they had gone. But of course this was a very rough method and they usually made errors. Sometimes they missed the place to which they were sailing by several hundred miles. They of course made errors sailing north and south too, but these were not so great because of the help they had from their cross-staffs.

Because they could tell latitude better than longitude it was the custom on the ships of the time of Prince Henry to sail straight north or south until they had come to the line of latitude on which the place was to which they were sailing. Then they

would turn sharp to the right or left and sail east or west, watching the speed of the vessel and guessing at the distance covered as well as they could. This was the plan adopted by Columbus on his first voyage, as we shall see.

So you see how difficult it was to sail ships out of sight of land in those early days, and it is really surprising that the mariners then managed as well as they did. Some of the better sailors like Columbus really made very close guesses as to where their ships were, in spite of their rude instruments. Probably this was because they were compelled to use their wits and could not depend upon accurate instruments to do their thinking for them.

Here we shall take leave of Prince Henry the Navigator, remembering as we go on with our story, how much he accomplished in waking up the sleepy Middle Ages, and in opening a new age of exploration and discovery. For it was in the little country of Portugal and under the guidance of Prince Henry that Europeans learned to study these things, and it was there and by him that the way was prepared for the still greater discoveries that we are now to tell of.

REVIEW OF PART ONE

Part One tells of the century that prepared the way for the discovery of America. The place of this century, and the most important events in our stories thus far, are shown on the time line on the opposite page, which you should now study with the help of the following questions and others that will occur to you.

1. How many centuries (hundreds of years) were there from the birth of Christ to the beginning of the fifteenth century?
2. How many centuries have there been since the end of the fifteenth century?
3. About how old was Marco Polo's book when Prince Henry brought it to his brother?
4. How old was Columbus when Prince Henry died? How old was Columbus in 1500? How old was he when he made his first voyage?
5. About how long did it take the Portuguese to find the sea-route to the Indies?

A REVIEW PROJECT

If you have the use of a large sand-table an interesting review of Part One can be made by outlining the Mediterranean Sea and a part of the west coast of Africa, showing in the sand the places and things told of in the stories. A still more interesting plan would be to make, in a suitable place, a shallow pond (perhaps six inches deep) for the same purpose. Small models of the old-fashioned ships might be built to sail upon it.

It would be well first to find a map of the Mediterranean region on the Mercator projection (that is, with vertical lines of longitude and horizontal lines of latitude, like those of the map on page 280). These may be represented by strings attached to pegs fixed in the sand or ground. Then within each square the coastlines and islands may be located readily. Find out how the size of your squares compares with the size of the squares on the map and work accordingly.

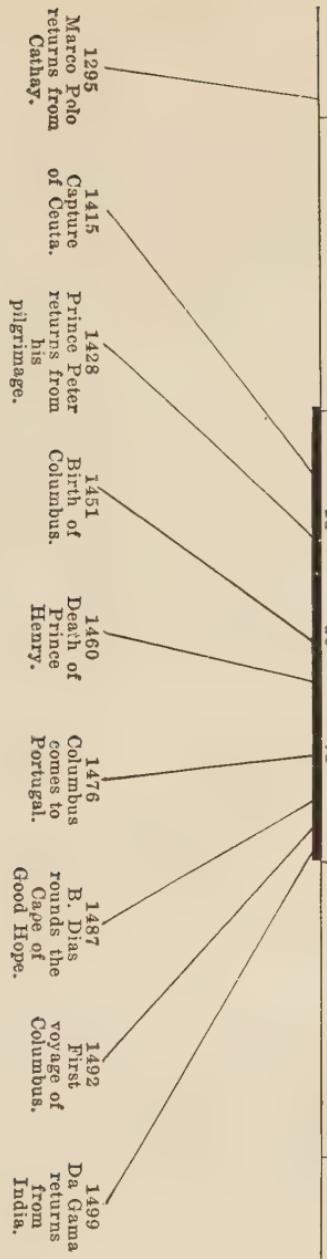
TIME LINE FOR THE FIFTEENTH CENTURY (1400 TO 1500)

Beginning of Modern Times

End of Middle Ages
1300

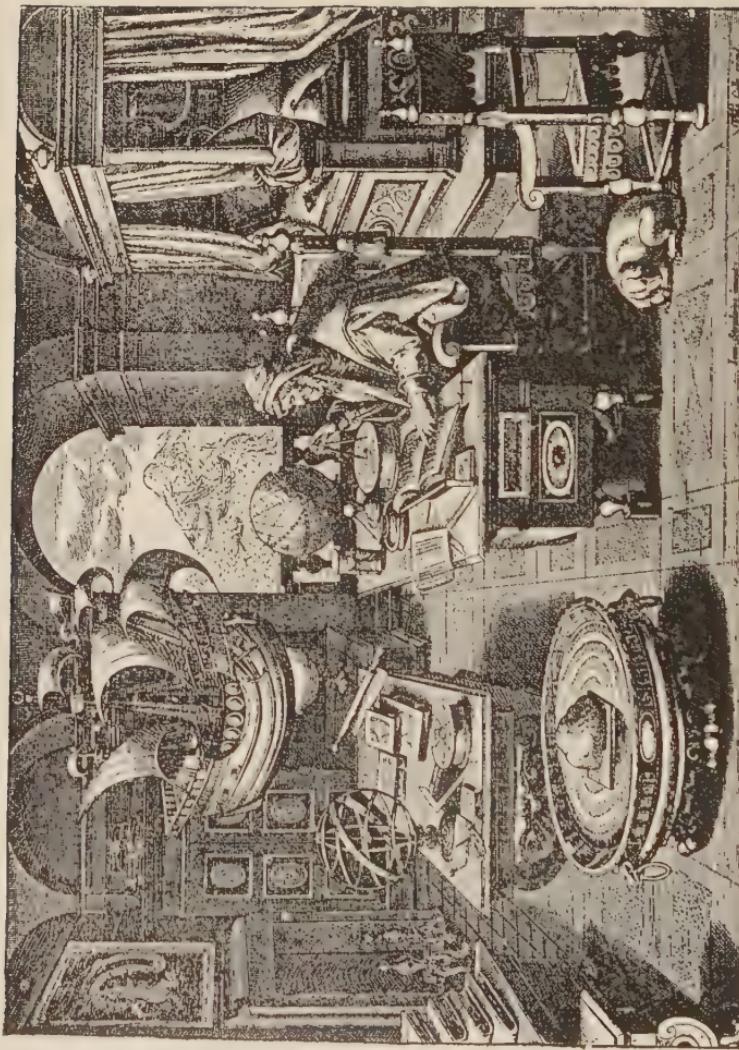
1400
25
50
75
1500

1600



A LEARNED MAN STUDYING GEOGRAPHY

Notice the magnetic stone floating in the basin. What other objects do you recognize?



PART TWO

THE DISCOVERY OF A NEW WORLD

INTRODUCTORY

The discovery of America was one of the greatest surprises in all history. Nothing like it had ever happened and nothing like it could ever happen again on this planet. Who would have supposed that out in the Sea of Darkness lay, not a few scattered islands, but two immense continents inhabited by a kind of people Europeans had never known. It requires the best use of our imagination to realize how amazing this discovery was to the people of Europe.

One of the mistakes often made about the discovery of the American continents is to suppose that when the discoverers first touched these shores they saw at a glance a sort of map or picture of the whole vast affair, as if one of them might have said, "So this is America!" Of course this is quite absurd. Each discoverer and explorer saw only bits of strange landscapes, tiny fragments of the whole. They were puzzled enough to know what all these fragments should mean when they were properly pieced together. One of the most interesting things in American history is to follow their guesses and to study their imperfect maps as they struggled to put their confused ideas into order. Let us try to keep their difficulties in mind as we now read the stories of some of the explorers who had most to do with the building up of a true picture of the continents. We shall begin with Columbus, leaving aside for lack of space the interesting visits of the Northmen five hundred years earlier, because they did not lead to a knowledge of the New World.

Columbus came to Portugal in his twenty-fifth year, about sixteen years after the death of Prince Henry. He probably remained there because Portugal had become the center of navigation and discovery beyond any other European nation. His brother Bartholomew may have been living at Lisbon at the time.



Painting by Pradilla

THE SURRENDER OF GRANADA TO THE SPANISH SOVEREIGNS

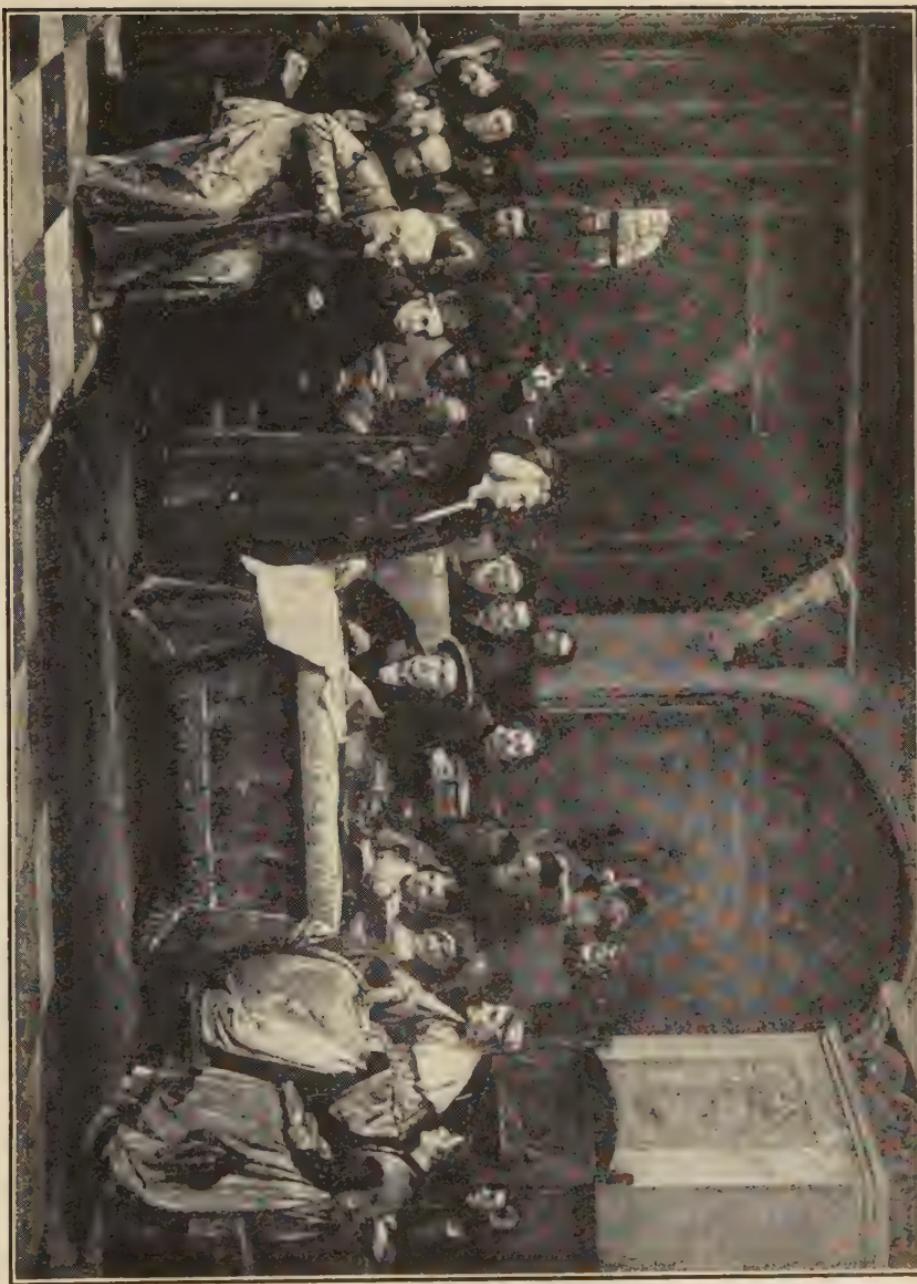
The Spanish sovereigns had been waging war with the Moors of Granada for several years, and were therefore unable to attend carefully to the plans of Columbus. The surrender of Granada ended the hold of the Moors on Spain. It took place on the second day of 1492. For eight centuries the conflict between Christians and Moors had been going on in the Spanish peninsula.

Painting by Brozik

COLUMBUS BEFORE THE KING AND QUEEN OF SPAIN

Courtesy of The Mentor Magazine

Columbus had to wait six years while the sovereigns were making up their minds. He demanded very great rewards. The King was not interested. Isabella decided the matter, although the story about picking her jewels seems to be a myth.



Columbus brought with him much practical knowledge of the sea. As a common seaman he had sailed on the Italian merchant ships in the Mediterranean and wherever these ships went. He was full of the spirit of adventure and keenly ambitious to distinguish himself.

He probably came to Portugal with little more knowledge than what a common sailor was then likely to pick up. But he had a keen and able mind and found many opportunities in Portugal of learning more about the higher knowledge of navigation and geography. We are told that he married the niece of a man who had been familiar with the work of Prince Henry, and that in this way he came into possession of valuable maps and papers. He seems to have dwelt for a time on an island of the Madeiras, and he himself tells us that he had sailed down the African coast with the Portuguese. In this way he was, therefore, a pupil of Prince Henry. His son afterwards wrote, "It was in Portugal that the Admiral began to surmise that if the Portuguese sailed so far south, one might sail westward and find lands in that direction."

WHY COLUMBUS THOUGHT HE COULD FIND LANDS IN THE SEA OF DARKNESS

The idea that the earth is round or spherical was a very old one even in the time of Columbus. The learned men among the Greeks and Romans over a thousand years earlier had held this idea, and it had been passed along down the centuries by the few wise men who read and studied the books of these ancient scholars. The masses of the people were of course very ignorant and believed the earth to be flat, because this is the way it appears and because they were taught this is the way the Bible describes it. As we have said, Columbus came upon some of the writings of these learned men, and having an active mind and much practical experience in geography, he was able to do his own thinking about what they had to say. He wrote at one time, "I have always read

that the world, comprising the land and water, is spherical, as is shown by the investigations of Ptolemy and others, who have proved it by the eclipses of the moon and other observations. . . .” Who was Ptolemy? How do the eclipses of the moon prove that the earth is spherical?

There were two other ideas about the earth that Columbus took from the old geographers. Both of these were wrong, but they were fortunate errors because they helped to make the idea of a voyage to the Indies across the western sea much simpler than it really was, and so encourage a bold man like Columbus to try it. One of these mistakes had to do with the size of the earth. We know today that the actual distance around the earth at the equator is about 25,000 of our miles. Some of the old-time geographers had estimated the distance to be almost as much as this, but others thought it was considerably less. Columbus believed it to be almost one quarter less than it really is. This would of course bring Asia nearer to Europe even if a greater error had not been made.

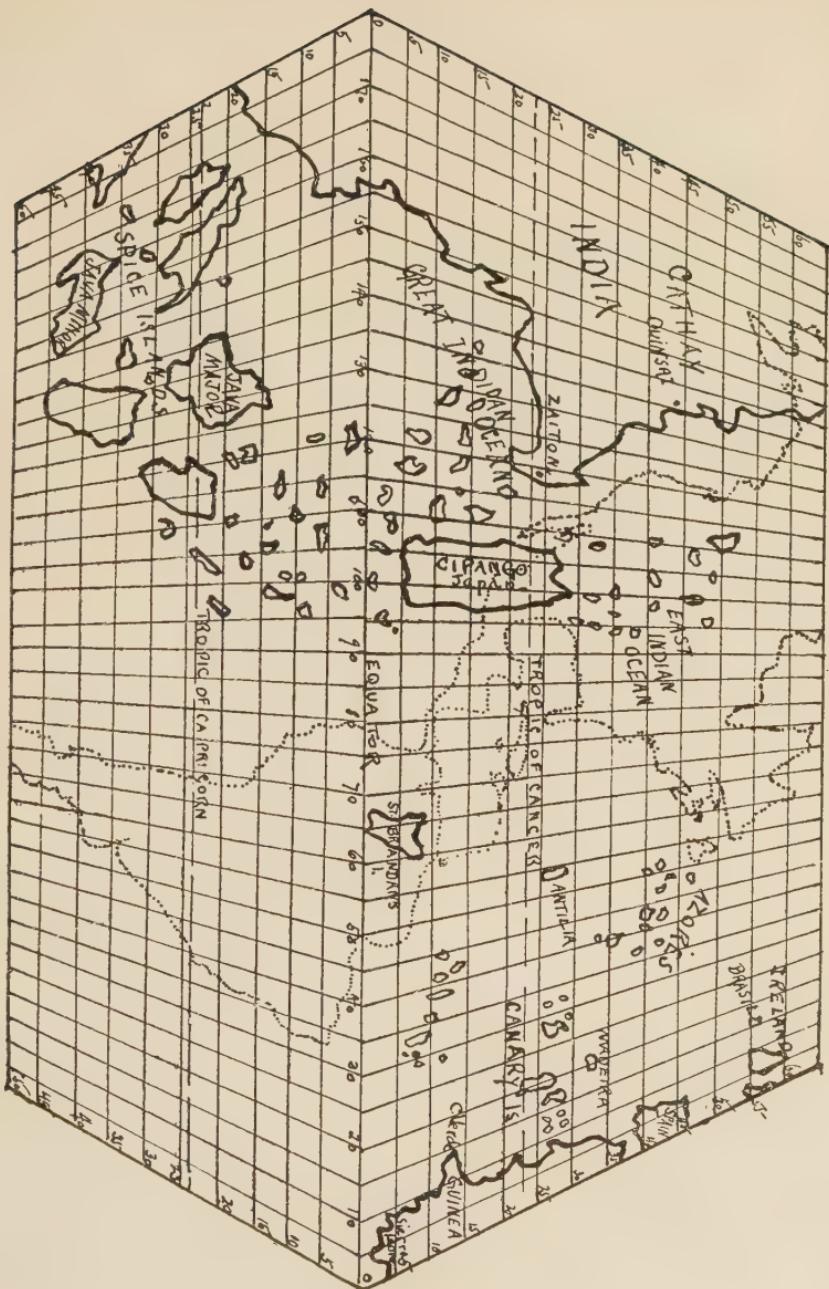
The other error stretched the eastern part of Asia, along with the islands of Japan and the Indies, far out into the sea towards the east—that is, towards Europe—so that it was thought to reach almost to where the North American continent is. This would leave only a short remaining distance occupied by the Sea of Darkness between the coasts of Asia and Europe, perhaps a fifth of the whole distance around the earth. The actual distance between these two coasts is about 11,000 of our miles. Columbus thought it to be less than half of this. It is hard to say just how many miles Columbus thought really had to be sailed across the Sea of Darkness, perhaps no more than about 3,000. What we are sure of is that he quite expected to find islands on the way. When we think of the small ships of Columbus and of the difficulties of navigating them, and of the fears of the sailors about the Sea of Darkness, we realize how fortunate it was for Columbus that he knew so little about the real facts. Otherwise it seems extremely doubtful whether he would have undertaken his

great voyage. If you will think this over with the help of a globe you will understand it much better.

The effect of these ideas is shown on the map on the opposite page. This map, or one very like it, is thought by some historians to have been sent to Columbus by a famous Italian geographer and to have been among his charts on his first voyage. Whether it was or not, it undoubtedly serves very well to show about what the learned men of his time thought of the Sea of Darkness. This is an old-fashioned map, not only because of its wrong ideas about places and distances, but also because of the way it is made. Map making is a very difficult art because it is necessary to show all the features of the curved surface of the earth on a small flat piece of cloth or paper. This requires not only a knowledge of geography but of mathematics as well. There are many ways known today by which a flat map may be made to show the curved surface of the earth, and the map before us is but a rude example of one of these ways. This explains its odd appearance. It was, however, a remarkable map for its time. The old Latin names have, of course, been changed into English, for in the days of Columbus learned men wrote in Latin. Why was this?

The heavy black line across the middle part represents the equator. Above and below this are shown the parallel lines of latitude, while up and down are the lines of longitude. To the left of the map you will find Cathay (China), India, Japan and the Spice Islands. On the right are indicated the west shores of Europe and Africa and the islands of the Atlantic, some of which never existed.

The letter which accompanied this map stated that each of the spaces across the Atlantic contains 250 Italian sea miles. So by counting the number of spaces between any two points east and west and multiplying by 250, you will have what the map-maker thought was the real distance between them. An Italian sea mile is about nine-tenths of an English mile, so you can quickly find about the number of English miles. You will notice, too,



THE SEA OF DARKNESS
This map shows the errors made by the learned men of the time of Columbus.

that a modern map-maker has shown by dotted lines about where the unknown American continents would be on this map. You will observe how Asia and North America overlap, and how great therefore was the error in placing the eastern shores of Asia.

PROBLEMS

1. From certain facts he had noticed, Columbus thought that a degree east and west at the equator is $56\frac{2}{3}$ miles long. What did he therefore think the whole distance around the earth at the equator is in our miles?
2. Columbus thought the distance from the islands near the Atlantic coast of Africa towards the east as far as the end of Asia is about 283 degrees. How far would this be in Italian sea miles? How many degrees would there be left for the Sea of Darkness? How many Italian sea miles across the Sea of Darkness? How many of our English miles across the Sea of Darkness?

THE SHIPS OF COLUMBUS AND HOW THEY WERE SAILED

On the opposite page is the picture of a ship built to be as much as possible like the Santa Maria of Columbus. This vessel, and two others to represent the Pinta and Niña of Columbus, were built at the time of the World's Fair at Chicago in 1892, which was held in honor of the 400th year after the discovery of America. The Secretary of the Navy sent an officer to Spain to ask the help of the Spanish government in making these vessels as correct as possible. A group of men who knew about such things drew up the plans and the ships were built. They took part in a celebration held in Spain in honor of the day on which Columbus found land, and afterwards were sailed across the Atlantic by a Spanish crew, in company with American warships. The fleet followed the very same course taken by the ships of Columbus 400 years before, and we are told the Santa Maria pitched badly on the waves. Thirty-six days were required to



From a photograph

Courtesy of The Mentor Magazine

THE SANTA MARIA, FLAGSHIP OF COLUMBUS

make the voyage. The best speed of the Santa Maria was six and a half miles an hour. Columbus made about four and a half on the average. From Havana, Cuba, where there was another celebration, the fleet was brought to the United States by Spanish warships.

The new Santa Maria was about 120 tons burden; her length was 63 feet, and her depth in the water $10\frac{1}{2}$ feet. However, the real Santa Maria was probably somewhat larger. She seems to have been about 90 feet long and about 20 feet wide, but there are different opinions about this because the real facts are now hard to get. She had been built for carrying goods between Spain and the north of Europe, but was not a large ship for her time, for there were then ships several times her size. Neither was she a very good sailer, and sometimes the waves broke over her bows. You will notice in the picture the high forecastle and high stern that belonged to the larger ships of these centuries. There was a small boat about 30 feet long which was usually towed behind; and a smaller one of 10 feet in length which was carried on deck. Of the three vessels of Columbus the Santa Maria seems to have been the only one with a whole deck. The Pinta was about half her size, and the Niña still smaller. All three were caravels:

The Santa Maria carried three masts. On the mainmast was a large square sail with an immense cross upon it. Above this was a fighting top you can just see in the picture; and above this again a topsail. At the head of this mast flew the flag of King Ferdinand and Queen Isabella of Spain. The foremast also carried a square sail with a huge cross, but no fighting top or topsail. Out on the bowsprit was another square sail. On the third mast or mizzen was the triangular or lateen sail that was so much used, and still is used, on the Mediterranean Sea. Probably the Pinta had three masts also with the same rigging. The Niña had lateen sails.

Being a merchant vessel the Santa Maria was not especially beautiful or well finished. Her hull was painted with tar and

the bottom greased to slip well in the water. The masts were rudely finished. A couple of hatchways led to the hold. On the quarter deck was the cabin of Columbus in which there was room for several persons to be seated. We are told the bed of Columbus was draped in red, and that he had in his cabin a press for his clothes, a stove, a couple of chairs, a dining-table for two, closets, books, and his instruments and charts. And while speaking of the beds on shipboard we might say that hammocks on ships were not yet in use, but were afterwards copied from the natives of the West Indies. At the door of his cabin stood the flag which expressed the vast power given to Columbus by the sovereigns of Spain, as admiral of the Ocean-Sea and governor of all lands to be discovered. Over the cabin and at the stern of the ship stood upon a pole a large lantern, such as all ships of the times carried. The light was made by a twisted rope smeared with pitch or resin. Because of the constant fear of fire, very few lights were permitted.

The Santa Maria carried 70 men, munition for several small cannon, stores for one year, and a large amount of goods for trading with any people that might be found. The food on the ship was bacon, beans, salt fish, cheese and bread. The cooking was done on a brick fireplace out on the deck, with an iron cross piece on top. The persons on board consisted of one master, two pilots, a surgeon, a quartermaster, a clerk, a man who knew several languages so Columbus could have him talk with strangers, a carpenter, a calker, a cooper, a steward, a gunner, a bugler, gentlemen in search of adventure, servants, seamen and cabin-boys. There were stern rules which had to be obeyed by all these people.

Let us now notice what instruments there were for sailing the ships. First we may mention the fact that there was not a steering wheel as at present, but a tiller such as we still have on small boats. For keeping time there was only the old-fashioned sand glass, in which the sand took one half hour to run from the upper part into the lower. The ships of course had the mariner's

compass to tell the direction in which they were going. This had 360 degrees and 32 points or directions, as the compass does today. Having no clock to measure the differences in time between Spain and where they were at any time, they could not find their longitude and could only guess at it by watching the speed of the vessel. For this reason Columbus sailed south to the Canary Islands, and then followed the twenty-eighth line of latitude straight west, until the latter part of the voyage when he turned somewhat to the south. At one place on the way for a day or so he left this line in search of islands he expected to find. This plan of going west on the twenty-eighth line of latitude turned out to be a very good one, for Columbus had fair winds behind him most of the way, whereas farther north he would have met calms or contrary winds.

For the finding of latitude Columbus had with him the cross-staff that you know about, as well as the quadrant and the sea-astrolabe. Columbus was an excellent map-maker, so of course he had maps and charts, and some books. He may have had Marco Polo's book about China and the Indies. On this voyage Columbus showed himself to be an excellent navigator.

COLUMBUS SAILS TO EXPLORE THE SEA OF DARKNESS, 1492-1493

“On the 2nd of August everything was ready; the ships moored out in the stream, the last stragglers of the crew on board, the last sack of flour and barrel of beef stowed away. Columbus confessed himself to the prior of La Rabida—a solemn moment for him in the little chapel up on the pine-clad hill. His last evening ashore would certainly be spent at the monastery. We can hardly realize the feelings of Columbus on the eve of his departure. Behind him, living or dead, lay all he loved and cared for; before him lay a voyage full of dangers—dangers from the ships, dangers from the crews, dangers from the weather, dangers from the unknown path itself; and beyond

Painting by Gisbert



COLUMBUS DEPARTED FROM PALOS, SPAIN, AUGUST 3, 1492, AT SUNRISE

Gramstorff Bros.

them, a twinkling star on the horizon of his hopes, lay the land of his belief. Beneath him on the rising tide of the river, lay the ships and equipment that represented years of steady effort.

“Lights are moving about in the town beneath; there is an unusual midnight stir and bustle; the whole population is up and about, running hither and thither with lamps and torches through the starlit night. The tide is flowing; it will be high water before dawn; and with the first ebb of the tide the little fleet is to set sail. The stream of hurrying sailors and townspeople sets towards the church of St. George, where Mass is to be said and the sacrament administered to the voyagers.

“The calls and shouts die away; the bell stops ringing; and the low muttering of the priest is heard. Every head is bowed, every heart beats. The dark skinned congregation streams up to the sanctuary and receives the Communion, while the blue light of dawn increases and the candles pale before the coming day. And then out again to the boats with shoutings and farewells, for the tide has now turned; hoisting of sails and tripping of anchors and breaking out of gorgeous ensigns; and the ships are moving! The Maria leads, with the sign of the Redemption painted on her mainsail and the standard of Castile flying at her mizzen; and there is cheering from ships and from shore, and a faint sound of bells from the town of Huelva.

“Thus, the sea being calm and a fresh breeze blowing off the land, did Christopher Columbus set sail from Palos at sunrise on Friday the 3rd of August, 1492.”

COLUMBUS DESCRIBES THE VOYAGE DAY BY DAY

And now let us follow the three little ships as they slowly make their way out upon the unknown waters. We may do this by reading parts of the diary kept by Columbus for the King and Queen, and by looking for each day on the map on page 83.

“I left the city of Granada on the 12th day of May, in the year 1492, being Saturday, and came to the town of Palos, which

is a seaport; where I equipped three vessels well suited for such service; and departed from that port, well supplied with provisions and with many sailors, on the 3rd day of August of the same year, being Friday, half an hour before sunrise, taking the route to the islands of Canaria, belonging to your Highnesses, which are in the Ocean-Sea, that I might thence take my departure for navigating until I should arrive at the Indies, and give the letters of your Highnesses to those princes, so as to obey my orders."

[The record from here to the last day is in the language of an old historian.]

Monday, 6th of August.

The rudder of the caravel Pinta became damaged, and Martin Pinzon, who was in command, believed or suspected that it was done by Gomez Rascon and Cristobal Quintero, to whom the caravel belonged, for they dreaded to go on that voyage.

Tuesday, 7th of August.

The rudder of the Pinta was again damaged and they repaired it and went in search of the island of Lanzarote, one of the Canaries.

Thursday, 9th of August.

The Admiral took the Pinta to Canaria and they repaired her very thoroughly. Finally they came to Gomera. They saw a great fire issue from the mountain of the island of Teneriffe, which is of great height. They rigged the Pinta with square sails, for she was lateen rigged. The Admiral says that many honorable Spanish gentlemen at Gomera had declared that every year they saw land to the west of the Canaries. He also says that he recollects the same thing being told in the islands of the Azores. Having taken in water, wood and meat, he finally made sail from the said island of Gomera, with his three caravels, on Thursday, the 6th day of September [over a month since leaving Spain].

Sunday, 9th of September.

On this day they lost sight of land; and many, fearful of not being able to return for a long time to see it, sighed and shed tears. But the Admiral comforted all with big offers of much land and wealth, to keep them in hope and to lessen their fear. That day the sailors reckoned the distance 18 leagues but the Admiral counted only 15, having decided to lessen the record so that the crew would not think they were as far from Spain as in fact they were. [A league was about four and a half of our miles.]

Saturday, 15th of September.

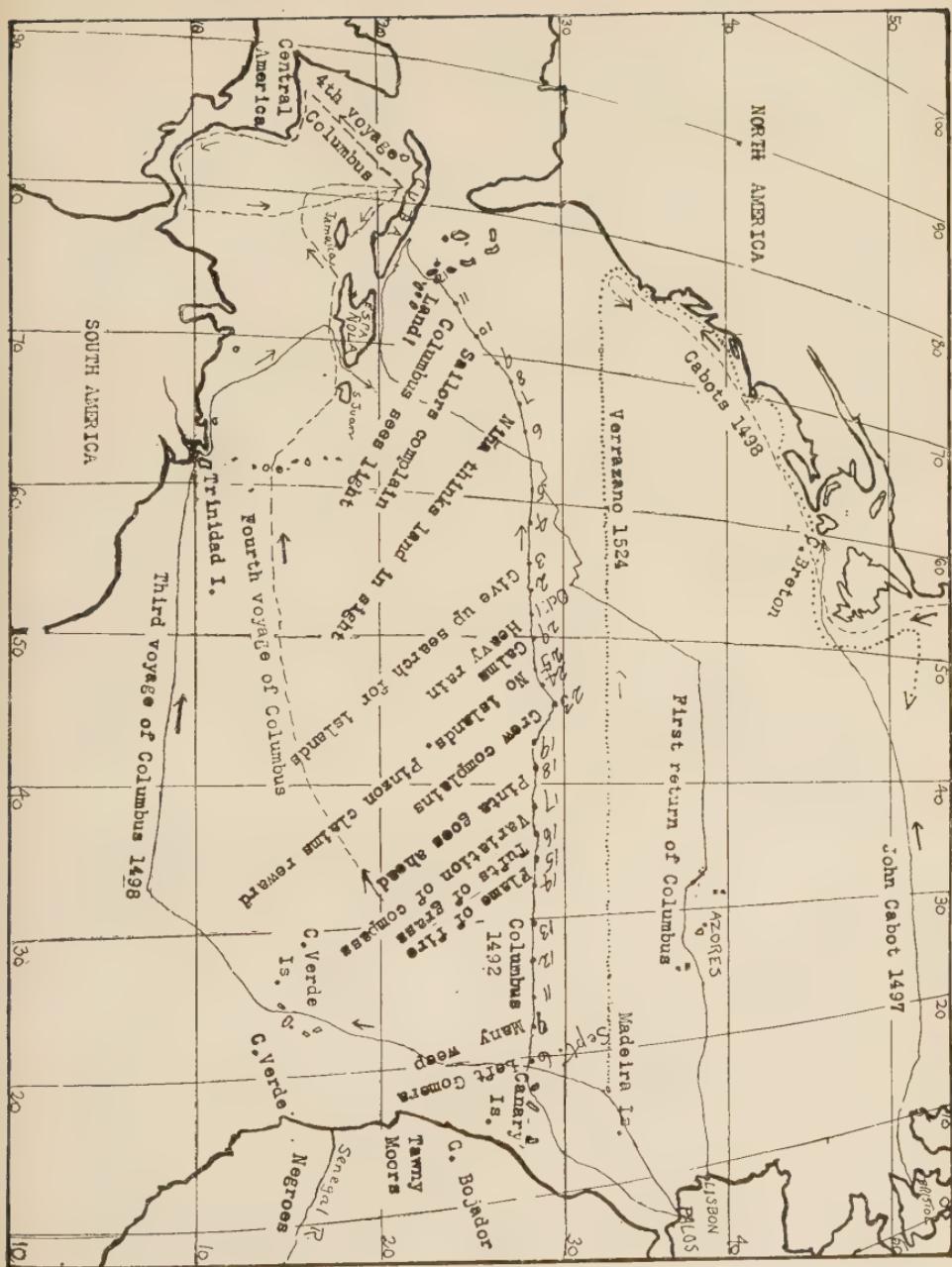
In the early part of the night there fell from heaven into the sea a marvelous flame of fire, at a distance of about four or five leagues from them.

Sunday, 16th of September.

The Admiral says that on that day, and ever afterwards, they met with very temperate breezes, so that there was great pleasure in enjoying the mornings, nothing being wanted but the song of nightingales. Here they began to see many tufts of grass which were very green, and appeared to have been quite recently torn from the land. From this they judged that they were near some island, but not the main land, according to the Admiral, "because," as he says, "I make the main land to be more distant."

Monday, 17th of September.

The pilots observed the compass and found that the needles turned a full point to the west of north. So the mariners were alarmed but the Admiral knew why. The cause was that the star makes the movement, and not the needles. [Why does not the needle of the compass always point straight north? Is the reason given here the true one? Why do you suppose Columbus gave this reason?] At dawn on that Monday they saw much more weed appearing, like herbs from rivers, in which they found a live crab, which the Admiral kept. He says that these crabs are certain signs of land. The sea water was found to be



less salt than it had been since leaving the Canaries. The breezes were always soft. Every one was pleased.

Tuesday, 18th of September.

In all these days the sea was very smooth, like the river at Seville. This day Martin Alonso with the Pinta, which was a fast sailer, did not wait; for he said to the Admiral from his caravel, that he had seen a great multitude of birds flying westward, that he hoped to see land that night, and that he therefore pressed onward. A great cloud appeared in the north, which is a sign of the nearness of land.

Friday, 21st of September.

At dawn they saw so much weed that the sea appeared to be covered with it [the Sargasso Sea]. The sea was very smooth, like a river, and the air the best in the world. They saw a whale, which is a sign that they were near land, because they always keep near the shore. [Do they ?]

Sunday, 23rd of September.

The sea being smooth and calm the crew began to murmur, saying that the wind would never blow so they could return to Spain. Afterward the sea rose very much, without wind, which astonished them.

Tuesday, 25th of September.

This day began with a calm, and afterwards there was wind. They were on their west course. The Admiral talked with Martin Pinzon, captain of the caravel Pinta, about a chart which he had sent to the caravel three days before, on which the Admiral had certain lands placed in that sea. Martin Alonso said that the ships were now in the position on which the islands were placed, and the Admiral replied that so it appeared to him; but it might be that they had not fallen in with them, owing to the ocean currents. The Admiral then asked for the chart to be returned, and it was sent back on a line.

At sunset Martin Alonso went up on the poop of his ship, and with much joy called to the Admiral, claiming the reward as he

had sighted land. When the Admiral heard this positively declared, he says that he gave thanks to the Lord on his knees, while Martin Alonso said the *Gloria in excelsis* with his people. The Admiral's crew did the same. Those on the Niña all went up on the mast and into the rigging, and declared that it was land. It so seemed to the Admiral and that it was distant 25 leagues. They all continued to declare it was land until night. The sea was very smooth, so that many sailors bathed alongside.

Saturday, 29th of September.

Owing to calms, the distance made good during day and night was not much. They saw a man-o'-war bird, which makes the boobies vomit what they have swallowed and lives on nothing else. It is a sea-bird but does not sleep on the sea, and does not go more than 20 leagues from the land.

Monday, 1st of October.

There was a heavy shower of rain. At dawn the Admiral's pilot made the distance from the island of Ferro 578 leagues to the west. The smaller reckoning which the Admiral showed to the crew made it 584 leagues; but the truth which the Admiral observed and kept secret was 707. [How did he know?]

Wednesday, 3rd of October.

Sandpipers appeared and much weed, some of it very old and some quite fresh and having fruit. They saw no birds. The Admiral therefore thought that they had left the islands behind them which were shown on the charts. The Admiral here says that he did not wish to keep the ships beating about, although he had information of certain islands in this region. For he wished to avoid delay, his object being to reach the Indies. He says that to delay would not be wise.

Saturday, 6th of October.

The Admiral continued his west course and during day and night they made good 40 leagues, 33 being counted. This night

Martin Alonso said that it would be well to steer south of west to the island of Cipango [Japan]. But it appeared to the Admiral that if an error was made the land would not be reached so quickly, and that it would be better to go at once to the continent and afterwards to the island. [What continent?]



FLEET OF COLUMBUS

Sunday, 7th of October.

The west course was continued. This day at sunrise the caravel Niña, being the best sailer, and having pushed forward as much as possible to sight the land first, so as to enjoy the reward which the sovereigns had promised to whoever should see it first, hoisted a flag at the masthead and fired a gun, as a signal that she had sighted land, for such was the Admiral's order. He had also ordered that at sunrise and sunset, all the ships should join him; because those two times are most proper for seeing the greatest distance, the haze clearing away. No land was seen during the afternoon, as reported by the caravel Niña,

and they passed a great number of birds flying from N. to S.W. This gave rise to the belief that they were near land. The Admiral was aware that most of the islands held by the Portuguese were discovered by the flight of birds. For this reason he resolved to give up the west course, and to shape a course W.S.W. for the two following days.

Wednesday, 10th of October.

The course was W.S.W. During the day and night they made 59 leagues, counted as no more than 44. Here the sailors could stand it no longer. They complained of the length of the voyage. But the Admiral cheered them up in the best way he could, giving them good hopes of the gain they might have from it. He added that, however much they might complain, he had to go to the Indies and that he would go on till he found them, with the help of our Lord.

Thursday, 11th of October.

The course was W.S.W. and there was more sea than there had been during the whole of the voyage. They saw sand-pipers, and a green reed near the ship. Those of the caravel Pinta saw a cane and a pole worked with iron; also a land plant and a small board. The crew of the caravel Niña also saw signs of land, and a small branch covered with berries. Every one breathed afresh and rejoiced at these signs. As the caravel Pinta was a better sailor she went ahead of the Admiral. The land was first seen by a sailor named Rodrigo de Triana.

But the Admiral at ten o'clock the night before, being on the castle of the poop, saw a light, though it was so uncertain that he could not affirm it was land. He called Pero Gutierrez, a gentleman of the King's bed-chamber, and said that he should look at it. He did so, and saw it. The Admiral said the same to Rodrigo Sanchez of Segovia, whom the King and Queen had sent with the fleet as inspector, but he could see nothing because he was not in a place whence anything could be seen. After the Admiral had spoken he saw the light once or twice again, and it

was like a wax candle rising and falling. It seemed to a few only to be a sign of land; but the Admiral was sure land was close. When they said the *Salve*, which all the sailors were accustomed to sing in their way, the Admiral urged the men to keep a good look-out on the forecastle, and to him who should first cry out that he saw land he would give a silk doublet, besides the other rewards promised by the sovereigns, which were 10,000 maravedis [about \$61, which were afterwards given to Columbus]. At two hours after midnight the land was sighted at a distance of two leagues. They shortened sail and lay by under the mainsail without the bonnets.

Friday, 12th of October.

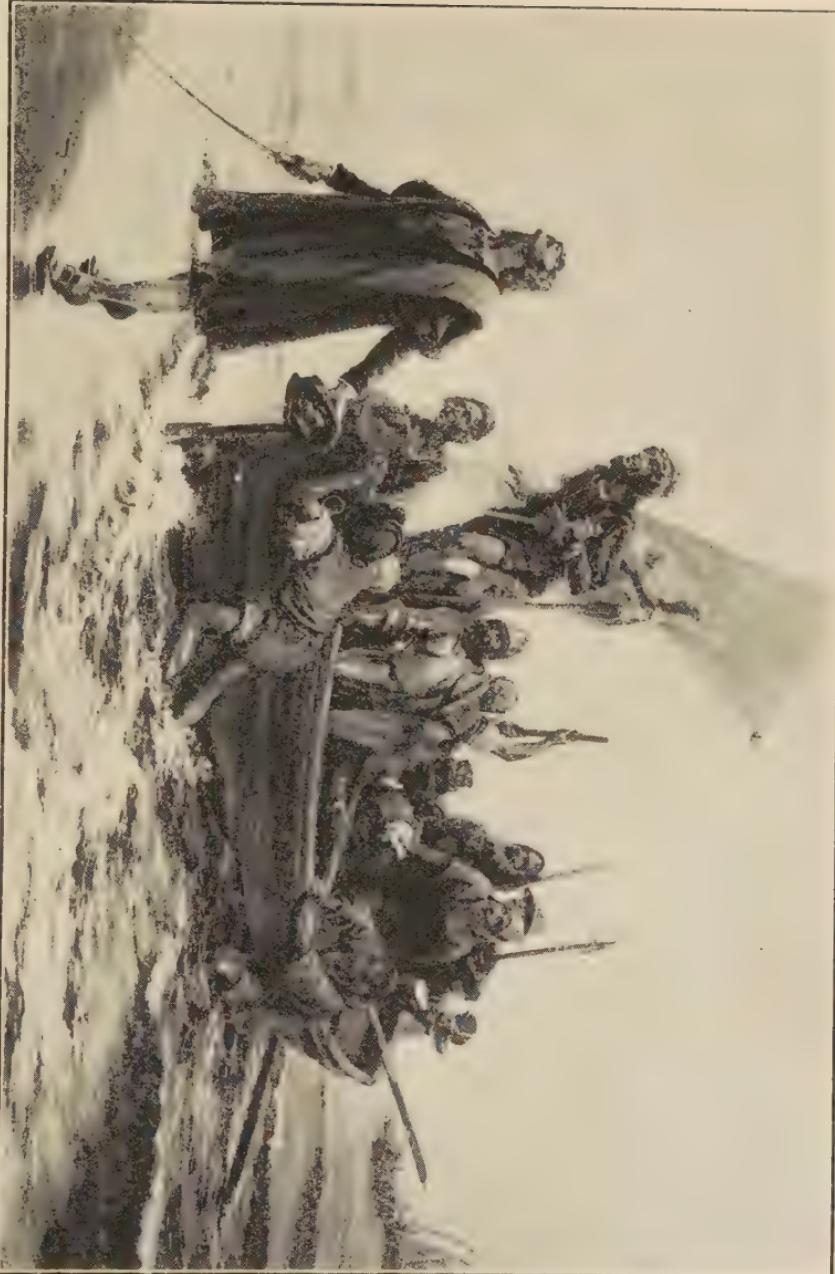
The vessels were hove to, waiting for daylight; and on Friday they arrived at a small island of the Lucayos [Bahamas], called in the language of the Indians Guanahani [Watling Island]. Presently they saw naked people. The Admiral went on shore in the armed boat, and Martin Pinzon, and Vicente, his brother, who was captain of the *Niña*. The Admiral took the royal standard, and the captains went with two banners of the green cross, which the Admiral took in all the ships as a sign, with an F and a Y and a crown over each letter, one on each side of the cross. Having landed they saw trees very green, and much water, and fruits of divers kinds. The Admiral called to the two captains, and to the others who leaped on shore, and said they should bear faithful testimony that he, in the presence of all, had taken possession of this island for the King and for the Queen his lords. Then many of the people of the island gathered there.

The Admiral says that we might form great friendship with them, for he knew that they were a people who could be more easily freed and converted to our holy faith by love than by force. He gave to some of them red caps, and glass beads to put round their necks, and many other things of little value, which gave them great pleasure, and made them so much our friends that it was a marvel to see.

Painting by Gabrini

Columbus landed at Watling Island, one of the Bahama group, October 12, 1492. The island was called Guanahani by the Indians. Columbus named it Sias Salvador.

Field Museum of Natural History, Chicago



Sunday, 21st of October.

"I shall shape a course for another much larger island, which I believe to be Cipango [Japan], judging from the signs made by the Indians I bring with me. They call it Cuba, and they say that there are ships and many skillful sailors there. Beyond this island there is another called Bohio, which they also say is very large, and others we shall see as we pass, lying between. According as I obtain tidings of gold or spices I shall settle what shall be done. I am still resolved to go to the mainland and the city of Quinsay, and to deliver the letters of your Highnesses to the Grand Khan, requesting a reply and returning with it."⁷

THE TRIUMPHAL RETURN TO SPAIN, 1493

When Columbus and his companions had become somewhat acquainted with the strange lands and people they had found, they sailed from island to island, and along the north coasts of Cuba and Española [Santo Domingo]. Columbus was delighted and somewhat bewildered with all he saw. He made an earnest search for gold, spices and pearls, and for the cities of the Grand Khan. He was sure that Japan and the mainland of Asia were not far away, if indeed he had not touched them. The Santa Maria was wrecked and a blockhouse built on Española for those who must be left behind. The two caravels then set out for Spain and returned by way of the Azores, perhaps because Columbus knew the winds blew toward the east on that route. Some idea of the reception given to the party by the sovereigns and people of Spain may be had from the following account:

"The excitement in the towns and villages through which Columbus passed was extreme. Wherever he went he was greeted and feasted like a king returning from victorious wars; the people lined the streets of the towns and villages, and hung out banners, and gazed their fill at the Indians and at the strange sunburned faces of the crew. At Barcelona, when the King and Queen heard that Columbus was approaching the town, they had their throne prepared under a magnificent pavilion, and in the

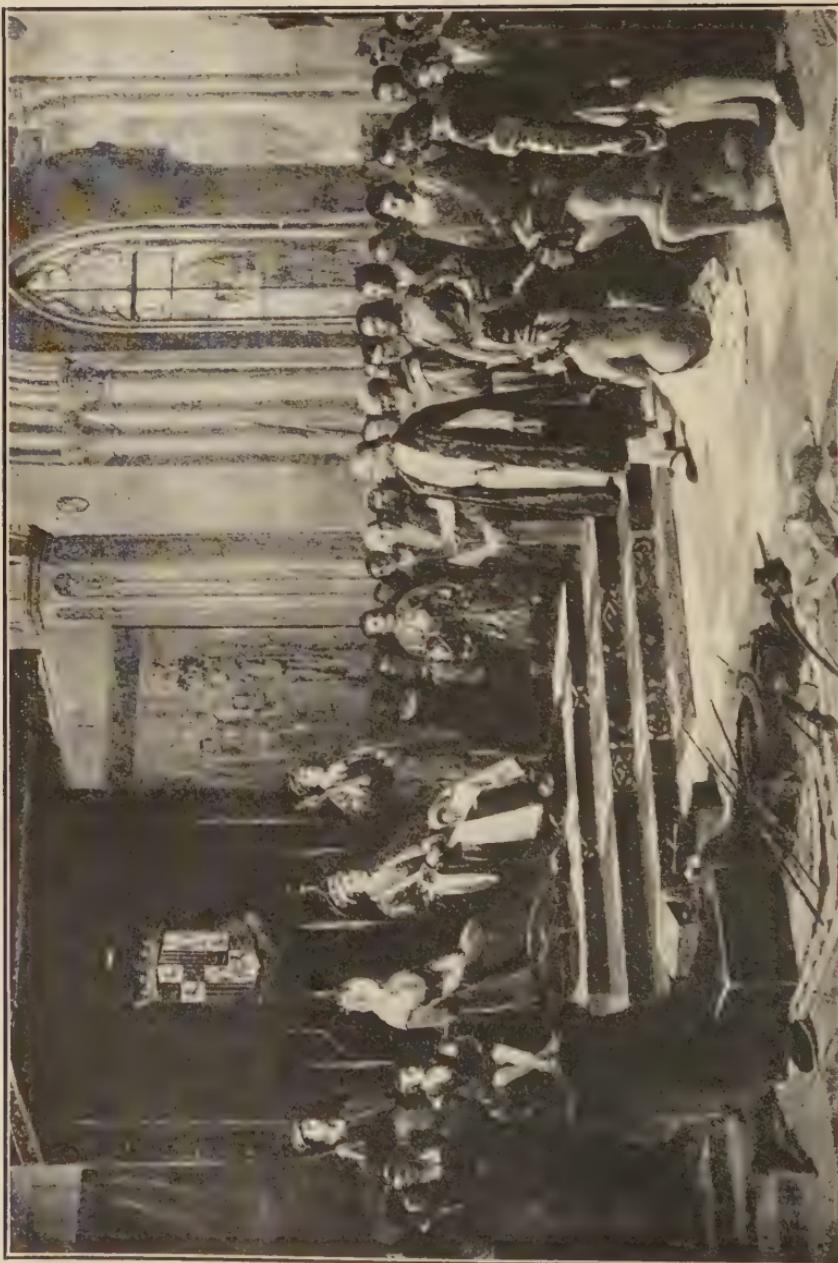
hot sunshine of that April day they sat and waited the coming of the great man. A glittering troop of cavalry had been sent out to meet him, and at the gates of the town a procession was formed. He had now six natives with him, who occupied an important place in the procession; sailors also, who carried baskets of fruit and vegetables from *Española*, with stuffed birds and animals, and a monstrous lizard held aloft on a stick. The Indians were decked out in all their paint and feathers; but if they were a wonder and marvel to the people of Spain, what must Spain have been to them with its great buildings and cities, its carriages and horses, its glittering dresses and armors, its splendor and luxury! We have no record of what the Indians thought, only of what the crowd thought who gaped upon them and upon the gaudy parrots that screeched and fluttered also in the procession. Columbus came riding on horseback, as befitted a great admiral and viceroy, surrounded by his pilots and principal officers; and followed by men bearing golden belts, golden masks, nuggets of gold and dust of gold, and preceded by heralds and mace-bearers.

“What a return for the man who three years before had been pointed at and laughed to scorn in this same brilliant society! The crowds pressed so closely that the procession could hardly get through the streets; the whole population was there to witness it; and the windows and balconies and roofs of the houses, as well as the streets themselves, were thronged with a gaily dressed and wildly excited crowd. At length the procession reaches the presence of the King and Queen; and, crowning honor! as the Admiral comes before them Ferdinand and Isabella rise to greet him. Under their own royal canopy a seat is waiting for him; and when he has made his ceremonial greeting he is invited to sit in their presence and give an account of his voyage. At various stages in his narrative he produces illustrations; now a root of rhubarb or allspice; now a raw nugget of gold; now a piece of gold worked into a mask or belt; now a native decorated with the barbaric ornaments that were the fashion in *Española*.

Gramstorff Bros.

AN ARTIST'S IDEA OF THE RECEPTION OF COLUMBUS

Painting by Balaca



These things, says Columbus, are mere first fruits of the harvest that is to come.

“The sovereigns were delighted and profoundly impressed. Columbus wound up his address with an eloquent conclusion concerning the glory to Christendom of these new discoveries; and there followed an impressive silence, during which the sovereigns sank on their knees and raised hands and tearful eyes to heaven, an example in which they were followed by the whole of the assembly. The choir of the Chapel Royal sang a solemn *Te Deum* on the spot; and the sovereigns and nobles, bishops, archbishops, grandes, hidalgos, chamberlains, treasurers, chancellors, and other courtiers, being exhausted by these emotions, retired to dinner.”⁶

QUESTIONS

1. For what kingdom did Columbus make his voyage? To what king had he first offered his services?
2. Did he make his voyage to find new lands and islands in the Ocean-Sea?
3. Did he mean to visit the great princes of Cathay and the Indies?
4. From whom had he learned about these princes?
5. What rewards did Columbus demand of the King and Queen? Did he ask too much?
6. Did he hope to convert to Christianity the people of the lands he should find?
7. Was Columbus the first man to think that by sailing west one might arrive at the Indies? Explain.
8. What thing about his voyage do you most admire?
9. How many days were spent out of sight of land?
10. On an outline map of the world show the course taken on the first voyage.

THE SECOND AND THIRD VOYAGES OF COLUMBUS

The king of Portugal was now very sorry that he had not sent out Columbus to make these new discoveries in the west for himself. However, he made the best of the matter and after much argument induced the sovereigns of Spain to divide the new parts of the world between them. With the aid of the Pope a bargain was struck, and a line drawn down through the middle of the Atlantic Ocean. To the east of this line all new lands should belong to Portugal; to the west of it they should go to Spain (see map, p. 280). Meanwhile Columbus was hurried off again with seventeen ships and 1500 men to see what more he could do for Spain (1493-1496).

Columbus sailed on his second voyage in high expectations. Porto Rico and Jamaica were discovered; but the little colony he had left at Espanola had been destroyed by the Indians through the bad conduct of the colonists. A new settlement was made and the permanent Spanish settlement of the West Indies begun. Cuba was visited and Columbus was still quite sure the Asiatic coasts had been reached. But the gold and spices and great cities of Marco Polo still defied his search. Signs of gold, however, were found in the river beds, and the hope of spices was not given up. Columbus returned to Spain to make as much of a showing as he could with what he had learned and with what he could promise.

But already his troubles were upon him. He was not as able a governor as he was a mariner and all sorts of difficulties arose in the new settlement, fostered and made much of by his enemies. Still the sovereigns kept their faith in him, even if the people of Spain had already grown somewhat tired of his large promises and small results. Columbus was fitted out again for his third voyage (1498-1500). This time he struck to the south, for he had heard of rumors of a mainland there (see map, p. 83). And now he was to make his second great discovery, that of a main-

land, although he could not know, of course, that it was the great continent of South America that he touched. You will see from the extract how he felt about it, and how his deeply religious mind connected the parts about the Orinoco River with old stories of the Garden of Eden.

The first land sighted on this voyage was the island of Trinidad, named by Columbus from three peaks which suggested the Trinity to his religious mind. He coasted along the southern shore until he came to the western cape, which he called Point of Arenal. His own narrative proceeds from this point as follows:

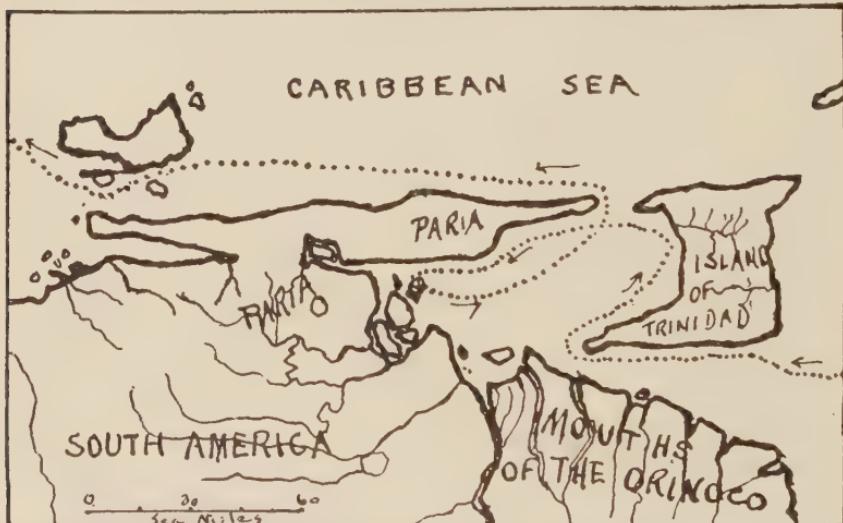
“When I reached the Point of Arenal, I found that the island of Trinidad formed with the land of Gracia [the mainland] a strait of two leagues width from east to west; and as we came through it to go to the north, we found some strong currents which crossed the strait, and which made a great roaring like the sound of breakers against the rocks. I anchored there.

“In the dead of night while I was on deck, I heard an awful roaring that came from the south towards the ship. I stopped to observe what it might be, and I saw the sea rolling from west to east like a mountain as high as the ship, and approaching by little and little. On the top of this rolling sea came a mighty wave, roaring with a frightful noise. To this day I have a vivid recollection of the dread I then felt, lest the ship might founder under the force of that tremendous sea; but it passed by.

“On the following day I sent out boats to take soundings, and found that in the strait there were constant currents—one running inward and the other outward. It pleased the Lord, however, to give us a favorable wind; and I passed through the middle of the strait, after which I recovered my peace of mind. The men happened at this time to draw up some water from the sea, which, strange to say, proved to be fresh. I then sailed northwards till I came to a very high mountain. Here two lofty headlands appeared—one towards the east, forming part of the island of Trinidad; and the other on the west, being part of the land which I have already called Gracia. We found here a

channel still narrower than that of Arenal, with similar currents, and a tremendous roaring of water; the water here also was fresh.

"I sailed along the coast westwards; and the farther I advanced, the fresher and more wholesome I found the water; and when I had proceeded a considerable distance, I reached a spot where the land appeared to be cultivated. I then anchored at the mouth of a river; and we were soon visited by a great number of the natives, who informed us that the country was called Paria, and that farther westward it was more fully



WHERE COLUMBUS TOUCHED THE MAINLAND OF SOUTH AMERICA

peopled. I took four of these natives and proceeded on my westward voyage, and when I had gone eight leagues farther, I found on the other side of a point, which I called the Needle, one of the most lovely countries in the world, and very thickly peopled. I resolved to anchor there and talk with the people. Some of the natives came out to the ship in canoes to beg me, in the name of their king, to go on shore. And when they saw that I paid no attention to them, they came to the ship in their canoes in countless numbers; many of them wearing pieces of gold on their breasts, and some with bracelets of pearl on their arms.

COLUMBUS THINKS HE IS NEAR THE GARDEN OF EDEN AND
SUSPECTS HE HAS TOUCHED A MAINLAND

"I have always read that the world comprising the land and water is spherical. But I have now seen so much irregularity, that I have come to another conclusion, which is that it is not round, but of the form of a pear.

"I believe that the earthly paradise is on the summit of the spot which I have described as being at the top of the pear. The approach to it from a distance must be easy and not steep, but I believe no one could ever reach the top. I think also that the water [of the Orinoco River] that I have described, may come from it, though it be far off. There are many signs of this being the earthly paradise, for its position agrees with the opinion of holy and wise men. And moreover I have never either read or heard of fresh water coming in so large a quantity to the water of the sea. The idea is also supported by the mildness of the temperature. And if the water of which I speak does not come from the earthly paradise, it appears to be still more marvelous; for I do not believe that there is any river in the world so large or so deep.

"It is certain that the discovery of this land in this place is as great a miracle as the discovery on my first voyage. I am convinced that this is the mainland, and very large, of which no knowledge has been had until now."⁸

QUESTIONS

1. Who discovered South America?
2. What causes the currents and the roaring noise in the strait Columbus passed through?
3. What was the earthly paradise?
4. What lead Columbus to think he was near it?
5. How do you explain this odd idea in the mind of Columbus?
6. Why was Columbus puzzled over the signs of a great mainland to the south of Cuba?

HOW COLUMBUS FOUND HIS LATITUDE WITH A QUADRANT

Writing of his third voyage Columbus said, "As to the Polar Star, I watched it with great wonder, and devoted many nights to a careful examination of it with the quadrant, and I always found that the lead and line fell to the same point." We may suppose that his quadrant was not greatly unlike the one shown on the next page, taken from a book written a hundred years later. The man is dressed in the costume of the time the book was written. Let us see if we can understand how the quadrant was used.

You will remember that when we were telling of the cross-staff on page 58, you learned that the number of degrees the North Star is above the horizon at any place is the number of degrees that place is north of the equator, or its latitude. Now the quadrant is simply another instrument for finding this number. You will see that it is just one-quarter of a whole circle, and therefore has 90 degrees marked on the curved part, for you recall that a whole circle has four times that many. The line with the lead hanging at the end is of course straight up and down, and points to a spot in the heavens directly overhead. So you see the man is trying to find how far down toward the horizon the North Star is from the spot directly over his head. This he will learn by noticing at what number the line crosses the curved part, and he is holding his finger there to keep the line from slipping when he turns the quadrant over to see. This number will be some part of 90 degrees from his eye, will it not?

Now he knows how many degrees the North Star is from the spot straight over his head. The number of degrees that remain from where the North Star is to the horizon will make up 90 degrees. Therefore if he subtracts the number he has found on his quadrant from 90 degrees, this must be the number of degrees from the North Star to the horizon, and this is his latitude.

This will be easier to understand, perhaps, if you use your drawing compasses again. Lay one leg of the compasses on a level window-sill, and point the other leg straight up in the air. Now you have between the two points of the compasses one-fourth of a whole circle, or 90 degrees. Move the upright leg down till it



Model and photograph by Dr. Edward Higginson Hall—Reproduced through his courtesy
THE QUADRANT

points directly at the North Star. How many degrees do you guess you have subtracted from the 90? This is the number the quadrant gives you. Then you know how many remain between the North Star and the horizon, and this is your latitude.

Suppose you read again what Columbus said, and see if you can make out what he meant. Perhaps you could make a quadrant out of stiff cardboard and find your latitude with it.

SPAIN'S FIRST RIVAL IN THE WESTERN SEA:
THE VOYAGE OF JOHN CABOT FOR
ENGLAND, 1497

So far the kings of Portugal and Spain were having things much their own way in the discovery of new lands. But now Henry VII decided to have some of them for England. For although the king of England was a good Catholic, as all the European kings were at that time, he did not agree that the Pope could give all the new parts of the world to Spain and Portugal. Still, there was no good in a useless quarrel, so when he sent John Cabot on a voyage of discovery, he suggested that Cabot sail straight west from England and thus avoid the new lands of Spain which Columbus had found by sailing west from the Canaries (see map, p. 83). Surely there must be lands in the Ocean-Sea besides the ones Columbus had found, and perhaps a better way to the Indies.

This voyage of John Cabot turned out to be a very important one, first because no one had sailed straight west from the north of Europe since the days of the Vikings hundreds of years before, and also because it resulted in the discovery of North America.

John Cabot was a citizen of Venice living at Bristol in England, one of the main shipping ports on the west coast of England. Like Columbus he was born in Genoa. As a sailor on the Mediterranean, Cabot seems to have gone east as far as Arabia, and to have wondered if the rich Indies could not be reached by sailing westward, for he believed the earth to be round.

Perhaps this was the reason why he had come to Bristol in England. For the merchants and sailors of that city had long been interested in the Western Sea. The coasts of Iceland were the best fishing-grounds before Cabot found the better ones off Newfoundland, and the British merchants had built up quite a trade there. In fact, Bristol merchants had done even more than this. They had long known the old tales of the Atlantic Ocean

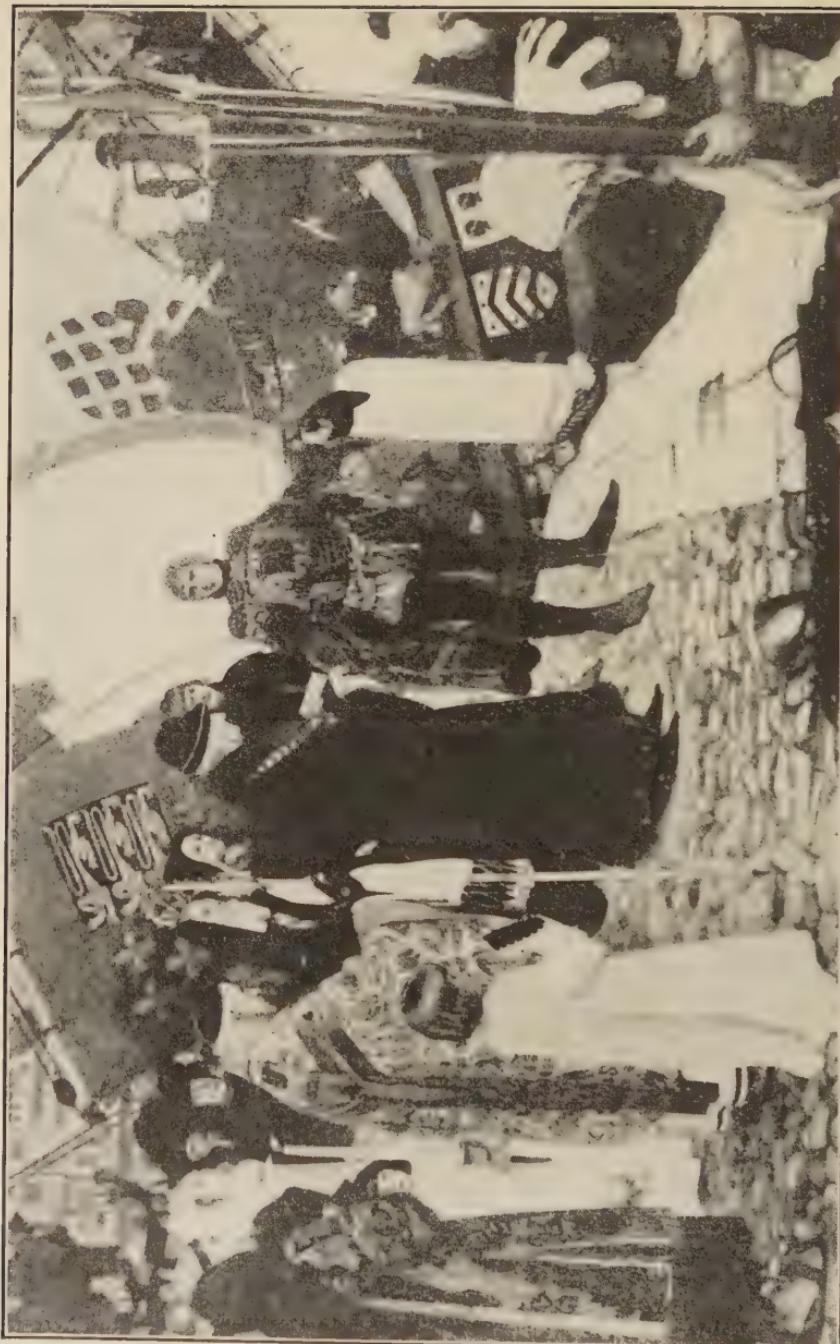
which had come down from the Middle Ages—old legends about the mythical islands of St. Brandan, Antilia, Brazil and the Seven Cities—and they had actually tried to find these islands by sending out ships.

You may be sure, then, that when the news came to England of the great voyage of Columbus, the merchants and sailors of Bristol were keenly interested, and especially John Cabot; and it is not strange that King Henry should have sent him on a voyage of discovery for England. So off he went with eighteen sailors in the little ship Mathew, about the size of the *Niña* of Columbus. You will learn what happened to him from parts of two letters given below, which were written after his return. We are not sure just where he touched land, probably at Cape Breton Island, at the eastern end of Nova Scotia.

In the following year Cabot left on a second voyage, from which he may never have returned. Perhaps his son Sebastian finished the voyage. They were still trying to find a northern route to the Indies. Apparently they sailed across to Greenland and then south. They missed the entrance to Hudson's Bay, else they must certainly have thought the route had been found. Some think that the voyage was continued along the coast of North America, perhaps even to Florida (see map, p. 83).

Nothing came of these voyages at the time, for no gold or spices or wealthy trading cities had been found. But long afterwards the English people made much of them, for the time came when they wished to lay claim to the northern part of the Atlantic coast of North America, and they could base their claims on these voyages of the Cabots because they were the earliest ones made there.

Perhaps you may be interested in the kind of letter the kings of those days gave to the men who went exploring for them. The one that follows is the paper that King Henry had written out for John Cabot, to tell exactly what were to be his rights and authority on his voyages.



Painting by Ernest Board

AN ARTIST'S IDEA OF THE DEPARTURE OF CABOT FROM BRISTOL

Keystone View Co.

THE KING'S LETTER

Henry, by the grace of God, King of England and France and lord of Ireland, to all whom this shall come—greeting: Be it known that we have given and granted to our well-beloved John Cabot, citizen of Venice, to Louis, Sebastian and Sanctius, his sons, full and free authority to sail to all parts, countries and seas of the East, of the West and of the North [Why not South?] under our banners, with five ships of any kind whatever, and as many men as they will have with them, at their own cost, to seek out and discover any isles, countries, regions or provinces whatever, of the heathens and infidels which before this time have been unknown to all Christians.

We have given them leave to set up our banners in every village, town, castle, island or mainland they may find. And they may subdue and occupy for us any such villages, towns, castles and firm land so found. And as often as they shall arrive at our port of Bristol, they shall pay to us in goods or money the fifth part of their gain. And we have granted to them that none of our other subjects shall visit these lands without the permission of John Cabot and his sons. And we command that all our subjects, on sea or on land, shall give them all their help and favor.

Witness our self at Westminster, the fifth day of March, in the eleventh year of our reign [1496].

PARTS OF TWO LETTERS WRITTEN FROM LONDON TO
ITALY IN 1497 ABOUT THE VOYAGES OF JOHN CABOT

Both letters were written by Italians living in London. The first one was to the writer's brothers in Venice, the second by a different person to the Duke of Milan. Naturally these people were interested in the remarkable voyage of their countryman.

THE LETTER TO THE BROTHERS

The Venetian, our countryman, who went with a ship from Bristol to find new islands, has returned, and says that 700 leagues away he discovered mainland, the territory of the Grand

Khan. He coasted for 300 leagues and landed. He did not see any person, but he has brought hither to the King certain snares which had been set to catch game, and a needle for making nets. He also found some cut trees, therefore he supposed there must be people there. Being in doubt he returned to his ship.

He was three months on the voyage, and on his return he saw two islands but would not land, so as not to lose time, as he was short of provisions. He says the tides are smaller and do not flow as they do here. The King is much pleased.

The King has promised that in the spring our countryman shall have ten ships, armed to this order, and at his request has granted him all the prisoners, except traitors, to go with him. The King has also given him money with which to amuse himself till then, and he is now at Bristol with his wife, who is also a Venetian, and with his sons. He is called the great admiral. Vast honor is paid him; he dresses in silk, and these English run after him like mad people, so that he can take with him as many of them as he pleases, and a number of our own rogues [Italians] besides.

The discoverer of these things planted on his new-found land a large cross, with one flag of England and another of St. Mark, by reason of his being a Venetian, so that our banner has floated very far afield.

London, 23 August, 1497.

FROM THE LETTER TO THE DUKE OF MILAN

This Master John has the description of the world in a chart, and also in a solid globe which he has made, and it shows where he landed. And they say that it is a very good and temperate country, and they think that Brazil-wood and silk grow there. [Was this true?] And they say that the sea is covered with fishes, which are caught not only with the net but with baskets, a stone being tied to them in order that the baskets may sink in the water. And this I heard Master John tell.

And the Englishmen, his comrades, say that they will bring

so many fishes that this kingdom will no longer have need of Iceland, from which country there comes great store of fish.

But Master John has set his mind on something greater, for he expects to go farther on toward the East from that place, constantly hugging the shore until he shall be over against an island, by him called Cipango. From this region he thinks all the spices of the world come. He says that in former times he was at Mecca [in Arabia] whither spices are brought by caravans from distant countries, and that those who brought them, on



From Bryant & Gay's Popular History of U. S.
THE FISHING BOATS THAT SOON CAME TO NEWFOUNDLAND

being asked where these spices grow, answered that they do not know, but that other caravans come to their homes with this merchandise from distant countries; and these caravans again say that they are brought to them from other remote regions. And he argues thus: that if the earth be round, it must be that the last one gets them at the north towards the west. [West of what?] And he said it in such a way, that, having nothing to gain or lose by it, I too believe it. And what is more, the King here, who is wise and not lavish, likewise puts some faith in him.

London, December 18, 1497.⁹

THE SPANISH AMBASSADOR COMPLAINS TO THE KING

Of course the Spanish ambassador at the English court learned about these voyages and hastened to notify the king and queen of Spain. Had not the Pope given all the new lands in the western hemisphere to Spain, and how could the king of England avoid their lands? You will see how the ambassador felt about this from his report which follows:

July 25, 1498.

I think your Majesties have already heard that the King of England has sent out a fleet to discover certain islands and mainland. Having seen the route they took and the distance they sailed I find that what they have found, or what they are in search of, is what your Highnesses already possess. It is, in fine, what fell to your Highnesses by the treaty with Portugal. [What treaty?] It is expected that they will be back in the month of September. The King of England has often spoken to me on this subject. He hopes to derive great advantage from it. I told him that, in my opinion, the land was already in the possession of your Majesties; but, though I gave him my reasons, he did not like it. Because I believe that your Highnesses will presently receive the chart or map which this man has made, I do not now send it; it is here, and it, according to my opinion, is false, in order to make it appear that they are not the islands of your Majesties.

QUESTIONS

1. Who was John Cabot and for whom was he sailing?
2. Was Cabot merely a follower of Columbus, or did he have ideas of his own about a western voyage? Explain.
3. Where did the merchants of Bristol get some of their ideas about the Western Sea?
4. What kind of a country did the King seem to be thinking Cabot might visit? Why was this?
5. Give as many reasons as you can for regarding the voyages of the Cabots of importance.

THE PORTUGUESE REACH THE REAL INDIES: THE FIRST VOYAGE AROUND AFRICA, 1497-1498

The king of England was not the only European king to be stirred into action by the great voyages of Columbus for Spain. The neighboring king of Portugal was, as we know, the greatest rival of Spain, and it is therefore not surprising that he should now make a great effort to outdo the exploits of Columbus, by finding the wealthy cities of the East that Columbus so far had been quite unable to reach. He had his own route to the East—the one marked out by Prince Henry down the coast of Africa, and ten years before this carried by Bartholomew Diaz to a point somewhat beyond the Cape of Good Hope. The time had now come for an effort to complete that route.

For this voyage, which was to be one of the greatest ever made, the king chose as commander Vasco da Gama, a gentleman of good family well known for its ability and seamanship. Like Prince Henry, the Portuguese king still hoped to find the Christian Prester John in the East, and to join him and other Christian princes there in a grand assault upon the hated Moslems. He of course also had in mind taking the European trade with the Indies away from the old trade-routes of Venice and the other Italian cities, and bringing it around Africa to Portugal, where it could be sent through Europe, much to the profit of his kingdom.

Da Gama was about thirty-six years of age and unmarried. He was a man of great courage and steadfastness, keenly ambitious for glory and success, but proud and cruel. The king provided him with four ships. Two of these, the San Rafael and San Gabriel, had been built specially for the voyage under the direction of Bartholomew Diaz. These were larger and stouter than the caravels of Prince Henry, low amidships with high castles at either end. Besides these two there was a caravel and a large storeship. About 150 men were on board, including several convicts. The ships carried the compass, charts and instru-

ments for finding the latitude—somewhat better ones than the captains of Prince Henry had used, for improvements in these things were rapidly being made. They could now find the latitude from the height of the sun above the horizon when the North Star was not visible. They carried books and maps about the East, including very probably the famous geography of Ptolemy and the Book of Marco Polo.

After the usual religious procession and ceremonies at embarking, they departed on the 8th of July, 1497, and in nineteen days had arrived at Santiago, one of the islands of the Cape Verde group. Here they took on wood, provisions and water, and then set out upon their long voyage. And now, instead of following down the coastline as the sailors before them had done, Da Gama made an immense curve far out into the Atlantic, within 600 miles of the coast of Brazil in South America. This he did to avoid the calms, winds and ocean currents that had hampered Diaz in 1487. In this great distance he was out of sight of land for 93 days, almost three times the number required by Columbus to reach the Bahamas. As far as we know this is the longest voyage away from land that had been made up to that time. The distance was 4500 miles, while that covered by Columbus was about 3500.

We are told very little of what happened in all those weary days. The record merely refers to some birds, to a whale they saw, some seals, and "sea-wolves," which perhaps were porpoises. At last they sighted land far down near the Cape and entered a bay the Captain named Bay of St. Helena (see map, page 280).

THEY ROUND THE CAPE OF GOOD HOPE AND PASS THE FARTHEST POINT REACHED BY BARTHOLOMEW DIAZ

For eight days they remained in this Bay of St. Helena, cleaning the ships, mending the sails and taking in wood. Here they also had some dealings with the native Hottentots. Then they set out for the dreaded Cape and doubled it after a little difficulty with winds. They very soon broke up the storeship and moved

its goods into the other vessels. The fleet followed the coastline and in time began the voyage up the east coast of Africa. They stopped at various places on the way, making themselves acquainted with the Negroes of these regions, and having many interesting experiences we cannot tell of. At certain points they set up crosses and pillars given them by the king to mark the claims of Portugal to these lands. On December 16th they passed the last pillar set up by Bartholomew Diaz. Eventually they began to learn from the Negroes of white men and of ships like their own, and they were gladdened to think they were approaching the wondrous Indies. Here they named a river "The River of Good Signs" (see map, p. 280). From this point we shall now follow the account of a man who was on the ships with Da Gama. The name of this man is unknown.

AT MOZAMBIQUE THEY COME UPON MOSLEMS AND SHIPS
LADED WITH EASTERN GOODS: THE PEOPLE OF
MIXED NEGRO AND ARABIAN BLOOD:
A LAND OF GOLD AND IVORY

"The Captain thought that we should enter this bay in order that we might find out what sort of people we had to deal with; that Nicolau Coelho should go first in his vessel, to take soundings at the entrance. As Coelho prepared to enter he struck the point of the island and broke his helm. I was with him at the time. When we were again in deep water we lowered our sails and cast anchor at a distance of two bowshots from the village. The people of this country are of a ruddy complexion and well made. They are Mohammedans, and their language is the same as that of the Moors [Arabic]. Their dresses are of fine linen or cotton stuffs, with variously colored stripes, and of rich and elaborate workmanship. They are merchants and deal with white Moors [Arabs], four of whose vessels were at that time in port, laden with gold, silver, cloves, pepper, ginger and silver rings, as also with quantities of pearls, jewels and rubies, all of which articles are used by the people of this country. We understood them to say that all these things, with the exception of the gold,



From a photograph

STATUE OF VASCO DA GAMMA

Keystone View Co.

were brought thither by these Moors; that further on, where we were going, precious stones, pearls and spices were so plentiful that there was no need to purchase them as they could be collected in baskets.

“We were told that Prester John resided not far from this place; that he held many cities along the coast, and that the



From a photograph

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THE CAPE OF GOOD HOPE
First rounded by Bartholomew Diaz in 1487.

people of those cities were great merchants and owned big ships. The residence of Prester John was said to be far in the interior [Abyssinia], and could be reached only on the backs of camels. This information, and many other things which we heard, rendered us so happy that we cried with joy, and prayed God to grant us health, so that we might behold what we so much desired.

“The vessels of this country are of good size and decked. There are no nails, and the planks are held together by cords, as

are also those of their boats. The sails are made of palm-matting. Their mariners have Genoese needles [the compass], by which they steer, quadrants and navigating charts."

THE REAL INDIES AT LAST

The fleet stopped at Mombasa and Malindi, two of the Negro-Arabian cities on the coast, where they were first taken for Moslems and were well received. When they were known to be the hated Christians there was trouble and some fighting. After obtaining a pilot they set out upon the voyage across the Arabian Sea, and at last arrived at the land of their desire.

"We left Malindi on the 24th of April for a city called Calicut, with the pilot whom the king had given us. On the following Sunday we once more saw the North Star, which we had not seen for a long time. [Why was this?]

"On Friday, the 18th of May, after having seen no land for twenty-three days, we sighted lofty mountains, and having all this time sailed before the wind we could not have made less than 600 leagues. On Sunday we found ourselves close to some mountains, and the pilot told us that they were above Calicut and that this was the country we desired to go to.

"That night after we were at anchor four boats came to us from the land, who asked of what nation we were. We told them, and they then pointed out Calicut to us. On the following day these same boats again came alongside, when the Captain sent one of the convicts to Calicut. Those with whom he went took him to two Moors from the Mediterranean who could speak Castilian and Genoese. The first greeting he received was in these words: 'May the Devil take you! What brought you hither?' They asked what he sought so far away from home, and he told them that we came in search of Christians and of spices. They said: 'Why does not the king of Castile, the king of France, or the senate of Venice send hither?' He said that the king of Portugal would not consent to this, and they said he did the right thing. After this conversation they took him to their lodgings and gave him

wheaten bread and honey. When he had eaten he returned to the ships with one of the Moors, who was no sooner on board than he said these words: 'A lucky venture, a lucky venture! Plenty of rubies, plenty of emeralds! You owe great thanks to God for having brought you to a country holding such riches!' We were greatly astonished to hear his talk, for we never expected to hear our language spoken so far away from Portugal."

DA GAMA GOES TO MEET THE KING OF CALICUT

"On May 28th the Captain set out to speak to the King, and took with him thirteen men, of whom I was one. We put on our best attire, placed bombards [small cannon] in our boats, and took with us trumpets and many flags. On landing, the Captain was received by an official, with whom were many men, armed and unarmed. The reception was friendly, as if the people were pleased to see us, though at first they did not seem so, for they carried naked swords in their hands. A palanquin was provided for the Captain, such as is used by great men in that country. The Captain entered the palanquin, which was carried by six men by turns. Attended by all these people we took the road to Calicut. We embarked on a river close by. The two boats in which we embarked were lashed together. There were numerous other boats, all crowded with people. As to those who were on the banks, their number was infinite, and they had all come to see us.

"When we arrived at Calicut they took us to a large church and this is what we saw. the body of the church is as large as a monastery, all built of hewn stone and covered with tiles. Within stood a small image which they said represented Our Lady. Along the walls, by the main entrance, hung seven small bells. In this church the Captain said his prayers."

This was really a Hindu pagoda, for the Portuguese had made a grave mistake in supposing that the Hindu were Christians. They of course had their own religion, which was quite different

from either that of the Moslems who traded with them and worshipped Mohammed, or the Christian.

"When we arrived at the King's palace great lords came out to meet the Captain. When we reached the palace we passed through a gate into a courtyard of great size, and before we arrived at where the King was we passed four doors through

which we had to force our way, giving many blows to the people. The King was in a small court, reclining upon a couch covered with a cloth of green velvet. In his left hand he held a very large golden cup. Into this cup he threw the husks of a certain herb which is chewed by the people because of its soothing effects [the betel nut]. On the right side of the King stood a basin of gold, so large that a man might just encircle it with his arms: this contained the herbs. There were likewise many silver jugs. The canopy above the couch was all gilt.



MEETING OF DA GAMA AND THE
KING OF CALICUT

country: by putting the hands together, then raising them towards Heaven. When the King beckoned to the Captain to come nearer he looked at us and ordered us to be seated on a stone bench near him, where he could see us. He ordered that water for our hands should be given us, as also some fruit, one kind of which resembled a melon, whilst another kind of fruit resembled a fig and tasted very nice [the banana]. Then turning to the Captain, the King invited him to tell him whatever he desired to say.

"The Captain, on entering, saluted in the manner of the

“The Captain told him he was the ambassador of the king of Portugal, who was the lord of many countries and the possessor of great wealth of every description, exceeding that of any king in these parts; that for a period of sixty years his ancestors had each year sent out vessels to make discoveries in the direction of India, as they knew that there were Christian kings there like themselves. [Who began this?] He had been instructed to say by word of mouth that the king of Portugal desired to be his friend and brother. In reply to this the King said that he was welcome; that, on his part, he held him as a friend and brother, and would send ambassadors with him to Portugal. The King then asked what kind of merchandise was to be found in his country. The Captain said there was much corn, cloth, iron, bronze and many other things. The King asked whether he had any merchandise with him. The Captain replied that he had a little of each sort, as samples, and that if permitted to return to the ships he would order it to be landed. The King said he might securely moor his ships, land his merchandise and sell it to the best advantage. Having taken leave of the King the Captain returned to his lodgings, and we with him.

“The merchants whom the King sent remained about eight days, but instead of buying they belittled the merchandise. The Moors no longer visited the house where the merchandise was, but they bore us no good-will, and when one of us landed they spat on the ground, saying: ‘Portugal, Portugal.’ Indeed, from the very first they had sought means to take and kill us.” [Why did the Arabian merchants hate the Portuguese?]

THE PRESENTS OF DA GAMA FOR THE KING ARE
LAUGHED AT

“On May 29th the Captain got ready the following things to be sent to the King: twelve pieces of striped cloth, four scarlet hoods, six hats, four strings of coral, a case containing six wash-hand basins, a case of sugar, two casks of oil and two of honey. And as it is the custom not to send anything to the King without

the knowledge of his officers, the Captain informed them of his intention. They came, and when they saw the present they laughed at it, saying that it was not a thing to offer to a king, that the poorest merchant from Mecca, or any other part of India, gave more, and that if he wanted to make a present it should be in gold, as the King would not accept such things. [The King's officers had been bribed by the Arabian merchants.] When the Captain heard of this he said that he had brought no gold; that, moreover, he was no merchant but an ambassador; that what he gave was his own private gift and not the king's; that if the king of Portugal ordered him to return he would send him far richer presents. When they had gone there came certain Moorish merchants and they all made little of the present."

[Why?]

TRouble Getting Away

"When the time arrived for our departure, the Captain sent by Diogo Diaz a present to the King, consisting of amber, corals and many other things. At the same time he ordered the King to be informed that he desired to leave for Portugal. In return for the present he begged in behalf of the king of Portugal for some cinnamon, some cloves and samples of such other spicess as he thought proper, saying that his agent would pay for them if he desired it. Four days passed before speech could be had with the King. When the messenger entered the palace where the King was, the King looked at him with a 'bad face,' and asked what he wanted. The bearer then delivered his message and referred to the present which had been sent. The King said that he did not want to look at it, and desired the Captain to be told that as he wished to depart he should pay him a large sum of money and that then he might go: this was the custom of the country and of those who came to it. Diogo Diaz said he would return with this reply to the Captain. But when he left the palace certain men followed him, and when he arrived at the house in Calicut where the merchandise was they put a number of men inside with him to watch that none of it was sent away.

“When the Portuguese saw that they were prisoners they sent a young Negro who was with them along the coast to seek for someone to take him to the ships, and to give information that they had been made prisoners by the order of the King. This news made us sad. We felt grieved that a Christian king should do us such an ill turn. At the same time we did not blame him so much, for we were well aware that the Moors of the place, who were merchants from Mecca and elsewhere, hated us. They had told the King that we were thieves, and that if once we sailed to his country no more ships from Mecca, nor from any other port, would visit him. They added that he would derive no profit from this trade with Portugal as we had nothing to give, but would rather take away, and that thus his country would be ruined. They, moreover, offered rich bribes to the King to capture and kill us, so that we should not return to Portugal.

“On Sunday, August 19, about twenty-five men came to our ship. Among them were six persons of quality, and the Captain laid hands upon them, and upon a dozen of the others. On Monday, the 27th, in the morning, while we were at anchor, seven boats with many people in them brought Diogo Diaz and the other Portuguese who were with him. Not daring to put him on board, they placed him in the Captain’s long boat, which was still attached to the stern. The Captain gave up in exchange the six most distinguished among his prisoners, keeping six others, whom he promised to surrender if on the morrow the merchandise were restored to him.

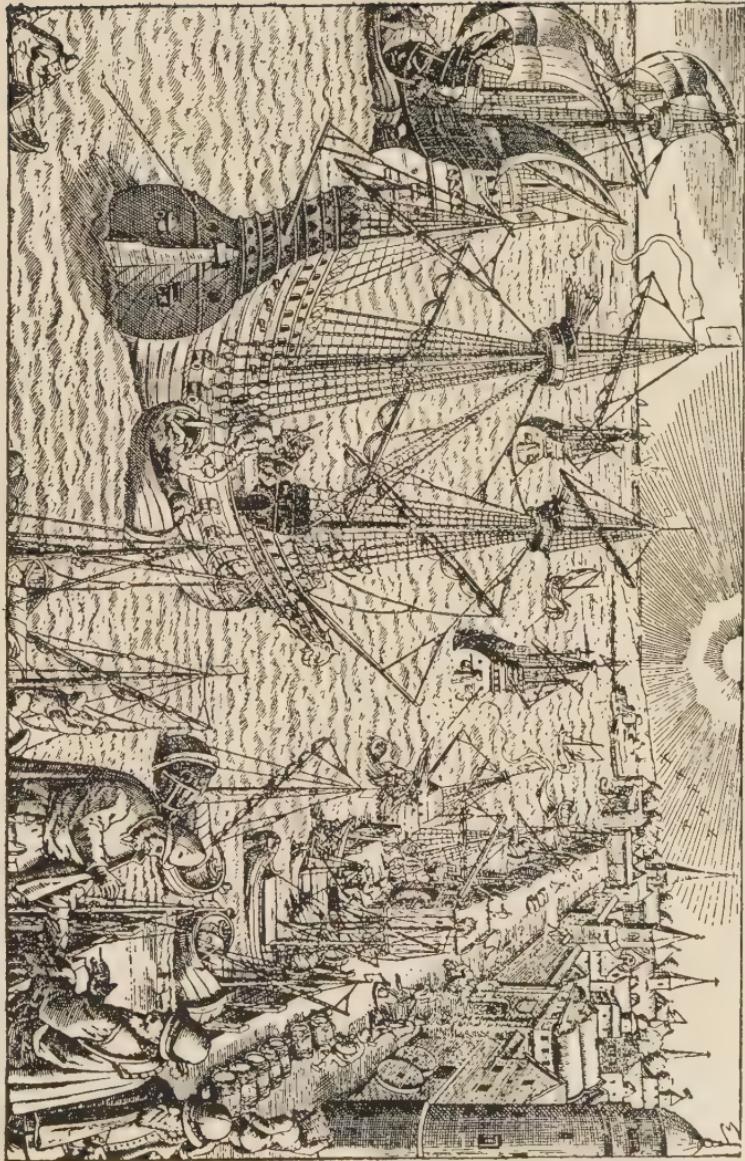
“On Wednesday, the 29th, the Captain and the other captains agreed that since we had discovered the country we had come in search of, as also spices and precious stones, and it appeared impossible to make friends of the people, it would be as well to take our departure, and it was resolved that we should take with us the men whom we held, as on our return to Calicut they might be useful to us in establishing friendly relations. We therefore set sail and left for Portugal, greatly rejoicing at our good fortune in having made so great a discovery.”

THE WRITER TELLS HOW THE TRADE OF THE INDIES GOT
TO EUROPE BEFORE THE PORTUGUESE ARRIVED

“From this country of Calicut, or Higher India, come the spices which are used in the East and West, in Portugal, as in all other countries in the world, and also precious stones of every description. The following spices are to be found in this city of Calicut, being its own produce: much ginger and pepper and cinnamon, although the last is not of so fine a quality as that brought from an island called Ceylon, which is eight days' journey from Calicut. Cloves are brought to this city from an island called Malacea. [Really the Moluccas, or Spice Islands.] The Arabian vessels carry these spices from Malacea to a city in Arabia called Jidda, and from that island to Jidda is a voyage of fifty days' sailing before the wind, for the vessels of this country cannot tack. At Jidda they discharge their cargoes, paying customs duties to the Grand Sultan of Egypt. The merchandise is then placed in smaller vessels which carry it through the Red Sea to a place close to Mount Sinai [Tor], where customs dues are paid once more. From that place the merchants carry the spices on the backs of camels, which they hire at the rate of four cruzados each, to Cairo, a journey occupying ten days. At Cairo duties are paid again. On this road to Cairo they are frequently robbed by thieves who live in that country, such as the Bedouins and others.

“At Cairo the spices are embarked on the river Nile, which rises in Prester John's country in Lower India, and descending that river for two days they reach a place called Rosetta, where duties have to be paid once more. There they are placed on camels, and are carried in one day to a city called Alexandria, which is a sea-port. This city is visited by the galleys of Venice and Genoa, in search of these spices, which yield the Grand Sultan of Egypt a revenue of 600,000 cruzados in customs duties.”¹⁰

In spite of the hostility of the Arabian merchants Da Gama finally made a friendly agreement with the King of Calicut, and



THE HARBOR OF OLD LISBON, PORTUGAL

From an old print

The new Portuguese trade-route around Africa made Lisbon the principal center of trade in Europe.

from him and other Indian princes filled his ships with spices and other products of India. With these he made his triumphal return to Portugal.

So Portugal had won the prize after all, and Prince Henry's dream of a Portuguese trade-route to the Indies by sea had come true. Venice and Genoa were to see their eastern trade slip away from them, and to watch Lisbon in Portugal become the great European center of trade with the East. Meanwhile, over on the other side of the Atlantic the puzzled Columbus, caught in a tangle of strange islands, coasts and seas, was struggling to solve his puzzle and to find a way to those same much-desired Indies.

QUESTIONS

1. Who was Da Gama and for whom was he sailing?
2. Who had preceeded him and how far had he gone?
3. Which was the more important voyage, that of Columbus or that of Da Gama? Which was more difficult to make?
4. Who was Prester John and with what country was he connected?
5. Show on your map the route taken by Bartholomew Diaz; by Da Gama; also the trade route described at the end of the story.



OLD CALICUT, INDIA

From an old print

COLUMBUS TRIES ONCE MORE TO REACH THE REAL INDIES: THE FOURTH VOYAGE, 1502-1503

On his way back from South America on his third voyage Columbus found the settlements on *Española* going from bad to worse. The Indians were being cruelly treated and there was all manner of discontent. The King and Queen had begun to lose confidence in his ability to govern new lands, and an agent had been sent over to make an investigation. Columbus was unjustly placed in irons, which he insisted on wearing until he should return to Spain. There the sympathetic sovereigns promptly released him with promises of the return to him of all of his rights.

Although Columbus was now only fifty-one years of age, his hardships and worries had broken his health and he was really an old man. The return of *Vasco da Gama* from the Indies for Portugal, with all its promise of wealth and trade, must have made him feel that in spite of his wonderful discoveries he had so far largely failed. He decided to make one more effort to reach the real Indies, for he realized by this time that the new lands he had found were in his way. Still, they must somehow be connected with Asia, and there must somewhere be a sea-route to the real Indies north of the mainland he had touched (South America). So on his fourth voyage he diligently sought this route along the coast of what we now know as Central America (see map, p. 83). Here he met with great difficulties and finally gave up, although he had hints of another sea to the west. With two remaining ships he attempted to reach the settlements on *Española*. And now we come to one of the most heroic adventures in his heroic life.

“All through the month of May and the early part of June they struggled along the south coast of Cuba, their ships as full of holes as honey-comb, pumps going always, and the worn-out seamen doing heroic labor at baling with buckets and kettles. Lee helm! down go the buckets and kettles and out run the

wretched scarecrows of seamen to the weary business of tacking ship for the thousandth time; and then back to the pumps and kettles again. No human being could endure this for a long time, and though their diet of rotten biscuit was varied with cassava bread supplied by friendly natives, the Admiral could not make his way eastward.

“It was a race between the water and the ships, and the only thing the Admiral could think of was to turn southward across to Jamaica, which he did on June 23, putting into Puerto Santa Gloria, now called Don Christopher’s Cove. He was just in time. The ships were run ashore side by side on a sandy beach, the pumps were abandoned, and in one tide the ships were full of water. The remaining anchor cables were used to lash the two ships together so that they would not move; although there was little fear of that, owing to the weight of water that was in them. Everything that could be saved was brought on deck and a kind of cabin or platform which could be fortified was rigged on the highest part of the ships. And so no doubt for some days, although their food was almost finished, the wretched and exhausted sailors could stretch their cramped limbs, and rest in the warm sun, and listen, from their safe haven on the warm sands, to the hated voice of the sea.”⁶

THE BRAVE EXPLOIT OF DIEGO MENDEZ DESCRIBED BY HIMSELF

“The Admiral called me aside and said to me, ‘Diego Mendez, my son, not one of those here has any idea of the great danger in which we stand, except myself and you; for we are but few in number, and these wild Indians are many and very changeable, and whenever they may take it into their heads to come and burn us in our two ships, they may easily do so by setting fire to our straw-thatched cabins. The arrangement you have made with them for a supply of food may soon prove disagreeable to them; and it would not be surprising, if, even to-morrow, they were not to bring us anything at all. I have thought of a plan, which

is that some one should go out in the canoe that you have bought and make his way in it to Española [Santo Domingo], to purchase a vessel with which we may escape. Tell me your opinion.'

"To which I answered, 'My Lord, I distinctly see the danger in which we stand. With respect to the passage from this island to Española in a canoe, I look upon it not merely as difficult, but impossible; for I know not who could dare to cross a gulf of forty leagues of sea, and amongst islands where the sea is so rough and dangerous.' [See map, p. 246.]

"His Lordship did not agree with my opinion, but gave strong reasons to show why I was the person to go; to which I replied, 'My Lord, I have many times put my life in danger to save yours and the lives of all those who are with you, and God has marvelously cared for me. For this reason there have been some who have said that your Lordship entrusts every honorable undertaking to me, while there are others who would perform them as well as I. My opinion is, therefore, that your Lordship would do well to summon all the men, and lay this business before them; to see if amongst them all there is one who will volunteer to undertake it, which I certainly doubt; and if all refuse, I will risk my life in your service, as I have many times already.'

"On the following day his Lordship caused all the men to appear together before him, and then opened the matter to them. When they heard it they were all silent, until some said that it was out of the question to speak of such a thing for it was impossible.

"I then arose and said, 'My Lord, I have but one life, and I am willing to hazard it in the service of your Lordship, and for the welfare of all those who are here with us; for I trust in God to deliver me.' When the Admiral heard my determination, he arose and embraced me, and kissing me on the cheek, said, 'Well did I know that there was no one here but yourself who would dare to undertake this enterprise. I trust in God, our Lord, that you will come out of it victoriously, as you have done in the others which you have undertaken.'

“On the following day I drew my canoe onto the shore, fixed a false keel on it, and pitched and greased it. I then nailed some boards upon the poop and prow, to prevent the sea from coming in. I also fixed a mast in it, set up a sail, and laid in the necessary provisions for myself, one Spaniard, and six Indians, which was as many as the canoe would hold. I then bade farewell to his Lordship and all the others, and proceeded along the coast of Jamaica up to the end of the island, which was thirty-five leagues from where we started. Even this distance was not covered without some toil and danger; for on the way I was taken prisoner by some Indian pirates, from whom God delivered me in a marvelous manner.

“When we reached the end of the island and were remaining there until the sea should become calm enough to allow us to cross it, many of the natives collected together with the intention of killing me and seizing the canoe with its contents, and they cast lots to see which of them should kill me. As soon as I became aware of their plan, I betook myself secretly to my canoe and set sail for the spot where the Admiral was and reached it after fifteen days. I related to him all that had happened, and how God had rescued me from the hands of those savages. His Lordship was very joyful at my arrival, and asked me if I would try again. I replied that I would, if I might be allowed to take some men to be with me at the end of the island until I should have a fair chance of putting to sea. The Admiral gave me seventy men, and with them his brother, to stay with me until I put to sea, and to remain there three days after my departure. With this arrangement I returned to the end of the island and remained there four days.

“Finding the sea become calm, I parted from the rest of the men with much mutual sorrow. I then commended myself to God and Our Lady of Antigua, and was at sea five days and four nights without laying down the oar from my hand, but continued steering the canoe while my companions rowed. It pleased God that at the end of five days, I reached the island of Espaⁿola at

Cape San Miguel, having been two days without eating or drinking, for our provisions were exhausted. I brought my canoe up to a very beautiful part of the coast, to which many of the natives soon came, and brought with them many articles of food; so that I remained there two days to take rest. I took six Indians from this place, and leaving those that I had brought with me, I put off to sea again, moving along the coast of Espanola; for it



From an old print

OLD SANTO DOMINGO

Santo Domingo was founded by Bartholomew Columbus and was the third Spanish settlement on the island. It became the principal city of the West Indies. Here Columbus was imprisoned. For 250 years his bones rested in the cathedral of the city. Remains of the Spanish occupation may still be seen.

was 130 leagues from the spot where I landed to the city of Santo Domingo, where the governor dwelt.

"I went on foot to Santo Domingo a distance of seventy leagues, and waited the arrival of ships from Spain, it being now more than a year since any had come. It pleased God that three ships arrived, one of which I bought, and loaded with provisions—bread, wine, meat, hogs, sheep and fruit—and sent it to the place where the Admiral was. I myself went on to Spain in advance with the other two ships, in order to give an account to the King and Queen of all that had occurred in this voyage.

"I think I should now do well to say something of the events which occurred to the Admiral and his people during the year they were left on the island. In a few days after my departure the Indians refused to bring food. The Admiral therefore caused all the chiefs to be summoned, and expressed to them his surprise that they should no longer send food, knowing, as they did, that he had come there by the command of God. He said that he perceived that God was very angry with them, and that he would that very night gives signs of his displeasure in the heavens; and as on that night there was to be an almost total eclipse of the moon, he told them that God caused it to show his anger against them. The Indians, believing him, were very frightened and promised that they would always bring him food in future; and so, in fact, they did, until the arrival of the ship which I had sent. His Lordship afterwards informed me in Spain, that in no part of his life did he ever experience so joyful a day; for he had never hoped to have left that place alive. And in that same ship he set sail, and went to Santo Domingo, and thence to Spain."¹¹

QUESTIONS

1. What was Columbus trying to do on his fourth voyage? Was he successful?
2. Show on your map the coastline touched by Columbus and his route to Jamaica. Show also the route taken by Diego Mendez.

THE LAST DAYS OF COLUMBUS, 1503-1506

Columbus died at Valladolid in 1506 at the age of fifty-five, a broken, discouraged and well-nigh forgotten man. His good friend the Queen had died before him. His last years were spent in beseeching the court of Spain for the rewards and honors that had been promised him and his heirs. He had asked a great deal, more perhaps than his sovereigns could easily give. Others had gone upon discoveries in his new territories without his permis-

sion and much injustice had been done him. He became troublesome and complaining, and the King put him off with excuses. To the end he hoped that wealth might be given him to carry out his promise to the Pope of a great crusade to the Holy Sepulchre. And he depended upon his son to make good his promise when he should be gone. You may judge of his state of mind from the letter which follows, written to the King and Queen a year or so before he died.

THE LETTER

Such is my fate, that the twenty years of service through which I have passed with so much toil and danger have profited me nothing, and at this very day I do not possess a roof in Spain that I can call my own. If I wish to eat or sleep, I have nowhere to go but to the inn or tavern, and most times lack wherewith to pay the bill. Another anxiety wrung my very heart strings, which was the thought of my son Diego, whom I had left an orphan in Spain, and stripped of the honor and property which were due to him on my account.

For seven years was I at your royal court, where every one to whom my plan was mentioned treated it as ridiculous; but now there is not a man, down to the very tailors, who does not beg to be allowed to become a discoverer. There is reason to believe that they make the voyage only for plunder and greatly to my dishonor. The lands which now belong to your Highnesses are richer and more extensive than those of any other Christian prince; and yet, after I had, by the divine will, placed them under your high and royal sovereignty, and while I was waiting for ships to convey me to your royal presence, victoriously to announce the news of the gold I had discovered, I was arrested, and thrown with my two brothers, loaded with irons, into a ship, stripped, and very ill treated.

I was twenty-eight years old when I came into your Highnesses' service, and now I have not a hair upon me that is not gray; my body is infirm, and all that was left to me, as well as

my brothers, has been taken away and sold, even to the frock that I wore, to my great dishonor. I cannot but believe that this was done without your royal permission. The honest devotion I have always shown to your Majesties' service and the so undeserved outrage with which it has been repaid, will not allow my soul to keep silence, however much I may wish it. I implore your Highnesses to forgive my complaints. I am indeed in as ruined a condition as I have related. Hitherto I have wept over others; may Heaven now have mercy upon me, and may the earth weep for me! ¹²



From a painting

Victor Animatograph Co.

Columbus died at Valladolid in 1506 at the age of fifty-five. He was attended at the end by Franciscan monks whose costume he had adopted. His death was noticed only by his closest friends. After some thirty years his remains were removed to Santo Domingo. They were afterwards disturbed and no one now knows for certain what became of them.

BALBOA FINDS THE SOUTH SEA, 1513

There were plenty of bold and ambitious men in Spain to serve the king by following up the discoveries of Columbus. Porto Rico was conquered, and Jamaica and Cuba. Settlements were made on these islands. The Indians were put to work as slaves. Spanish buildings were set up; Spanish customs were brought over; and the making of a new Spain in America went on apace. Hardy sailors had examined the coasts of Central America and the neighboring shores of South America. Soldiers of fortune eagerly questioned the Indians there for gold, and did not hesitate to destroy them if they made resistance. Drawn by a rumor of gold and of a fountain of youth in an island to the north, Ponce de León led an expedition to a land he named Florida (see page 264). It was a wonderful time for daring men in search of glory and riches and the favor of the king.

Such a man was Balboa. He had visited the isthmus of Panamá when he first arrived from Spain, but had afterwards returned to Espaniola, where he had become a gentleman farmer employing Indian slaves on his lands. But he was unsuccessful and had fallen into debt. To avoid the laws requiring debtors to remain on the island, he is said to have had himself carried in a food cask on board a ship that was sailing for the new Spanish settlements on the coast of Venezuela. Once at sea he came out of his hiding place. Although he was poor, Balboa was a good swordsman and full of energy. He greatly desired to become rich and to win the notice of the king. After landing he met a band of desperate colonists wandering about in search of food and a safe place to settle. Balboa suggested a good place he knew of to the westward, and there, at Darién, the first permanent Spanish settlement in that region was set up (see map, p. 246). His companions now made Balboa alcalde or judge. But he needed a better right to his leadership than his men could give him; so he sent a message to Diego Columbus, the son of Christopher and now governor of the West Indies at Espaniola, asking

for a commission as his agent or deputy. He also sent a message to the king.

The commission from Diego Columbus came, but from the king only rumors that Balboa was to be arrested for his boldness. So without further hesitation, and with a limited supply of men and



From Bryant & Gay's Popular History of U. S.
BALBOA ON SHIPBOARD

equipment, Balboa determined to try his fortune in some brilliant exploit that would surely command the favor of the king.

Now the ideas about the geography of these lands was still very cloudy in the minds of the Spanish. Although new information was constantly being had from other explorations since the voyages of Columbus, people still believed as he had, that the

new mainland was in some way connected with Asia. It was to require many years of further exploring and study to show the wonderful nature of the discovery that had been made—that of two great continents separated from Asia by a mighty ocean. At the point we have now reached they had come to understand only that there was a barrier of land that stood in the way of arriving at the real land of the spices. But they had already concluded that there must be a southern sea beyond this barrier of land that washed the shores of the real Indies, perhaps not very far away. And it is this sea that Balboa is to hear of again and go in search of, for we have noted that Columbus had heard rumors of it in his time. The story is told from this point by Washington Irving in his book about Columbus. A cacique was an important Indian chief who ruled over other chiefs.

HOW BALBOA HEARD OF THE SOUTH SEA

“His ships being at Darién Balboa made a friendly visit to the nearby province of Comagre, which was ruled by a cacique of the same name, who had 3,000 fighting men at his command. On the approach of Balboa the cacique came forth to meet him, attended by seven sons, all fine young men. He was followed by his principal chiefs and warriors, and by a multitude of his people. The Spaniards were conducted with great ceremony to the village, where quarters were assigned them, and they were furnished with abundance of food, and men and women were appointed to serve them.

“The eldest son of the cacique was of a lofty and generous spirit and distinguished above the rest by his superior intelligence. Perceiving that the Spaniards were a ‘wandering kind of men, living only by shifts and spoil,’ he sought to gain favor for himself and family by gratifying their love of gold. He gave Balboa, therefore, 4,000 ounces of gold worked into various ornaments, together with sixty slaves, captives taken in the wars. Balboa ordered one fifth of the gold to be weighed out and set apart for the king, and the rest to be shared among his followers.

The division of the gold took place in the porch of the dwelling of Comagre, in the presence of the youthful cacique who had made the gift. As the Spaniards were weighing it out, a violent quarrel arose among them as to the size of their several shares. The high-minded savage was disgusted with this low brawl among beings whom he had regarded with such reverence. In his dis-



From an old print

THE QUARREL OVER THE GOLD

dain he struck the scales with his fist and scattered the glittering gold about the porch.

“ ‘Why,’ said he, ‘should you quarrel for such a trifle? If this gold is indeed so precious in your eyes, that for it alone you leave your homes, invade the peaceful lands of others, and expose yourselves to such sufferings, I will tell you of a region where you may gratify your wishes to the utmost. Behold those lofty

mountains,' continued he, pointing to the south, 'beyond these lies a mighty sea, which may be seen from their summit. It is navigated by people who have vessels almost as large as yours, and furnished, like them, with sails and oars. All the streams which flow down to the southern side of these mountains into that sea abound in gold; and the kings who reign there eat and drink out of golden vessels. Gold, in fact, is as plentiful and common among these people of the south as iron is among you Spaniards.'

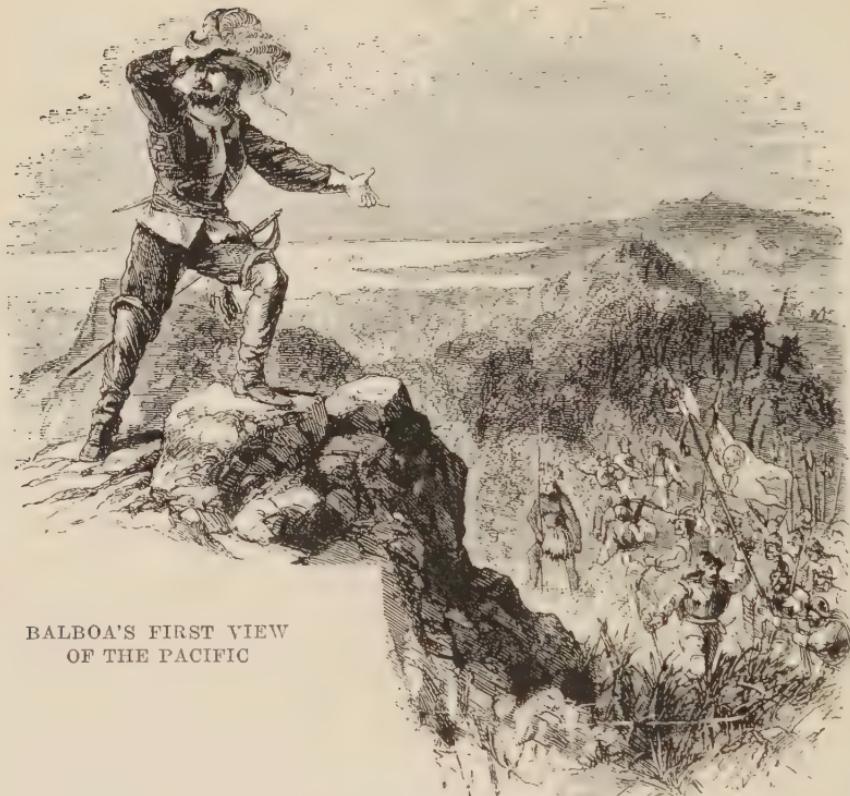
"Balboa inquired eagerly as to the means of reaching this sea and the rich regions on its shores. The youthful cacique gave him further information on the subject collected from various captives taken in battle. He, moreover, offered to accompany Balboa in any expedition to those parts, at the head of his father's warriors. Balboa hastened to return to Darien to make the necessary preparations for this splendid enterprise."

BALBOA FINDS THE SOUTH SEA

"The day had scarce dawned when Balboa and his followers set forth from an Indian village, and began to climb the mountain. It was a severe and rugged toil for men so wayworn; but they were filled with new ardor at the thought of what awaited them.

"About ten o'clock in the morning they came out of the thick forests through which they had struggled, and arrived at a lofty and airy region of the mountain. The bald summit alone remained to be climbed, and their guides pointed to a place from which they said the southern sea was visible.

"Upon this Balboa commanded his followers to halt and that no man should stir from his place. Then with a beating heart, he ascended alone the bare mountain-top. On reaching the summit, the long desired prospect burst upon his view. It was as if a new world were unfolded to him, separated from all hitherto known by this mighty barrier of mountains. Below him extended a vast confusion of rock and forest, and great plains and wandering streams, while at a distance the waters of the promised ocean glittered in the morning sun.



BALBOA'S FIRST VIEW
OF THE PACIFIC

"At this glorious prospect Balboa sank upon his knees and poured out thanks to God for being the first European to whom it was given to make that great discovery. He then called his people to ascend: 'Behold, my friends,' said he, 'that glorious sight which we have so much desired. Let us give thanks to God that he has granted us this great honor. As to yourselves, be faithful and true to me, and by the favor of Christ you will become the richest Spaniards that have ever come to the Indies; you will render the greatest services to your king that ever vassal rendered to his lord; and you will have the eternal glory and advantage, of all that is here discovered, conquered, and converted to our holy Catholic faith.'

“The Spaniards answered this speech by embracing Balboa and promising to follow him to death. Among them was a priest who lifted up his voice and chanted *Tu Deum laudamus*—the usual anthem of Spanish discoverers. The rest, kneeling down, joined in the strain with pious enthusiasm and tears of joy. It was indeed one of the most sublime discoveries that had yet been made in the New World, and must have opened a boundless field to the wondering Spaniards. Was this the great Indian Ocean, studded with precious islands, abounding in gold, in gems, in spices, and bordered by the gorgeous cities and wealthy markets of the East? or was it some lonely sea locked up within savage continents and never traversed except by the light canoe of the savage? This could hardly be the case for the natives had told the Spaniards of golden realms, and populous and powerful and luxurious nations upon its shores. Perhaps it might be bordered by various people, civilized in fact, though differing from Europe in their civilization.

“This great event took place on the 26th of September, 1513, so that the Spaniards had spent twenty days in performing the journey to the summit of the mountain, a distance which at present it is said, does not require more than six days’ travel. Indeed the isthmus in this neighborhood is not more than eighteen leagues in breadth in its widest part, and in some places merely seven; but it consists of a ridge of extremely high and rugged mountains.

“Having taken possession of the Pacific Ocean and all its lands from the summit of the mountain, Balboa now descended with his little band to seek the regions of wealth upon its shores. He had not proceeded far when he came to the province of a warlike cacique, named Chiapes, who, issuing forth at the head of his warriors, looked with scorn upon the small number of straggling Spaniards, and forbade them to set foot within his territories. Ordering his arquebusiers [soldiers armed with old-fashioned muskets] to the front, Balboa poured a volley into the enemy, and then let loose the bloodhounds. The flash and noise of the fire-arms and the sulphurous smoke which was carried by the wind

among the Indians, overwhelmed them with dismay. Some fell down in a panic as though they had been struck by thunderbolts; the rest betook themselves to headlong flight.

“Friendship having been established between them, Balboa remained at the village for a few days. He sent out three scouting parties of twelve men each, to explore the surrounding country and discover the best route to the sea. Alonzo Martin was the



*From Bryant & Gay's Popular History of U. S.
FIRST EUROPEANS ON THE SOUTH SEA*

most successful. After two days' journey he came to a beach, where he found two large canoes lying high and dry, without any water being in sight. While the Spaniards were regarding these canoes, and wondering why they should be so far on land, the tide, which rises to a great height on that coast, came rapidly in and set them afloat; upon this Alonzo Martin stepped into one of them, and called his companions to bear witness that he was the first European that embarked upon that sea.

“Balboa, being rejoined by his men, now left the greater part of his followers to rest and recover from their sickness and weariness in the village of Chiapes; and taking with him twenty-six Spaniards, well armed, he set out on the twenty-ninth of September for the sea-coast, accompanied by the cacique and a number of his warriors. The thick forests, which covered the mountains, descended to the very margin of the sea, surrounding and overshadowing the wide and beautiful bays that penetrated far into the land. The whole coast, as far as the eye could reach, was perfectly wild, the sea without a sail.

“Balboa arrived on the borders of one of those vast bays. The tide was out, the water was above half a league distant and the beach was covered with mud; he seated himself, therefore, under the shade of the forest trees until the tide should rise. After a while the water came rushing in, and soon reached nearly to the place where the Spaniards were resting. Upon this Balboa rose and took a banner on which were painted the Virgin and Child, and under them the arms of Castile and Leon; then drawing his sword and throwing his buckler on his shoulder, he marched into the sea until the water reached above his knees, and waving his banner, exclaimed with a loud voice, ‘Long live the high and mighty monarchs, Don Ferdinand and Donna Juana, sovereigns of Castile, of Leon, and of Aragon, in whose name, and for the royal crown of Castile, I take possession of these seas, and lands, and coasts, and ports, and islands of the south, and everything connected with them.’

“This done they advanced to the margin of the sea, and stooping down, tasted its waters. When they found that though separated by mountains and continents, they were salt like the seas of the north, they felt assured that they had indeed discovered an ocean, and again returned thanks to God.

“Having concluded all these ceremonies, Balboa drew a dagger from his girdle, and put a cross on a tree which grew within the water and made two other crosses on two neighboring trees, in honor of the Three Persons of the Trinity, and in token of

possession. His followers likewise cut crosses on many of the trees of the nearby forest, and lopped off branches with their swords to bear away as trophies.”¹³

QUESTIONS

1. To what nation did Balboa belong? From what island did he go to the mainland?
2. Why did he go to the mainland, and why did he think he might succeed there?
3. What were the three things Balboa promised his men if they would be faithful to him? Why did he offer them these three things?
4. How could Balboa take possession of all the lands and cities about the South Sea for Spain?
5. About how wide is the isthmus at the place where Balboa crossed it?
6. What did Balboa accomplish on this expedition besides the discovery of the South Sea?
7. How did he treat the Indians?
8. Can you find the story of his tragic death?
9. About how far away is the site of the Panamá Canal from where Balboa crossed the isthmus?
10. What kind of a man was Balboa?
11. When was Panamá founded and for what purpose?
12. Locate on your map the position of Darién and the route he took. Did he see the ocean itself or a bay? What bay?

THE RACE FOR THE SPICE ISLANDS: MAGELLAN
SAILS TO THE INDIES FOR SPAIN AND HIS SHIP
CIRCUMNAVIGATES THE EARTH, 1519-1522

When the king of Spain heard of Balboa's discovery of a southern sea, he sent off an expedition to seek a way about the southern mainland (South America) into that sea, so that his ships might reach the Spice Islands before the Portuguese should do so by way of their African route. But the expedition failed and returned home, after reaching as far south as the Rio de La Plata (see map, p. 280). In fact the Portuguese had arrived at the Spice Islands before the expedition left Spain.

How the Portuguese had come to do this is a remarkable story which cannot be told in this book. One powerful fleet after another had been sent on the track of Vasco da Gama, which in due time and after much bloodshed, had subdued the Arabs (White Moors), who then held the sea trade of the Indies, and who greatly resented the coming of the Portuguese. Forts and trading stations were established at good points; much plunder was captured; bargains with the native princes were made for trading rights. At last Portugal was supreme, and was to remain for years the leading nation in the seas of the Far East. Portugal thus became the first great commercial nation of Europe, and her capital at Lisbon its greatest trading port.

But the Spanish king was not idle. He was watching all these efforts of the Portuguese and doing what he could to rival them. It was this keen contest between the two monarchs that brought Ferdinand Magellan into history.

Magellan was from a noble Portuguese family. He had been brought up in the household of the king, and like all ambitious young men of his nation, had gladly offered himself for service in the Indies. There he gained much experience in fighting Malays and Arabs, and at one time proceeded as far east as Malacca, where he became interested in the Spice Islands. Afterwards he returned to Portugal to receive the reward due him for

his labors. But he had been accused of some fault in the Indies and the King would have nothing to do with him. Already Magellan seems to have been thinking of his great project of a western voyage to the Indies. This he now brought to the attention of the king, but the king would not listen. So unless he was to remain idle for the rest of his life and lose all chance of success, Magellan must offer his service to another monarch. When he asked his king for permission to do this he was told to do as he pleased. And so, like Columbus and Cabot, he changed his citizenship—for which he was greatly blamed by his countrymen.

The plan that his own king had rejected the king of Spain gladly accepted. Magellan offered to find out whether the Pope's line of division, when extended around the earth, would bring the Spice Islands into Spain's half of the world. He assured the Spanish king that it would. In this he was mistaken, which was not surprising, since no one yet could really tell. In time he sailed with five small ships, none too strong, but well provisioned and equipped. He could not know what a tremendous undertaking he was embarked upon, for no one yet suspected the immensity of the Pacific Ocean and the great distance to Asia (see map, p. 280).

Magellan carried the seeds of trouble with him on his ships. The king of Portugal vexed him all he could, for he was really angry that Magellan should have left his service for that of the king of Spain. Some of Magellan's captains were traitors and attempted to stir up a mutiny. The fleet had a difficult voyage to the coast of Brazil. Slowly it made its way down the coast of South America, searching the mouths of the large rivers for a passage into the sea Balboa had discovered. At last they came to the coast of Patagonia, where the winter was spent at a place called Port St. Julian. Here Magellan sternly put down a mutiny of some of his men. Certain of these were hung; others were sent away into the land to live or die as the case might be. Here, also, they met the tall and powerful Patagonians, whom the Europeans regarded as giants. In the spring, after repairing the



From a photograph

STATUE OF MAGELLAN

K. & Son, Ltd., Co.

ships and collecting provisions, the fleet set out in search of a strait of which Magellan seems to have had some rumor.

Let us now take up the account of an Italian gentleman on board Magellan's flagship, and follow the little fleet in its desperate effort to reach the Spice Islands. The account was written day by day by the Italian gentleman for his prince, who lived in Italy. The fleet now consisted of four vessels, one having been lost on the coast of Patagonia.

FINDING AND PASSING THE STRAIT

“After taking our course to the 52nd degree of the Antarctic sky [south latitude], on October 21 we found, by a miracle, a strait which we called the Cape of the Eleven Thousand Virgins. This strait is 440 miles long and almost half a league wide, and it leads to another sea, which is called the Peaceful Sea. It is surrounded by very great and high mountains covered with snow. The first bay was a round place and our sailors thought there was no strait that led from it to the Peaceful Sea. But the Captain said that there was another strait for going out.

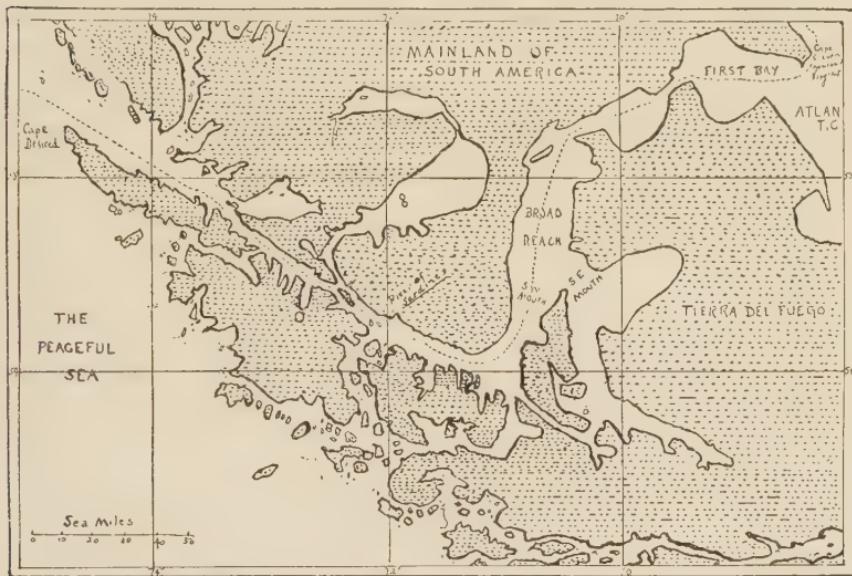
“The Captain sent on ahead two of his ships, the San Antonio and the Concepción, to seek this strait; and we with the other two ships, the flagship Trinidad and the Victoria, remained waiting for them within the bay. Here in the night we had a great storm, which lasted till the next day at midday, during which we were forced to weigh the anchors and let the ships go hither and thither about the bay.

“The two ships which had gone ahead, on approaching the end of the bay, and while expecting to be lost, saw a small mouth, and, like people giving up hope, threw themselves into it, so that by force they discovered the strait. They went further on and found a bay; then going still further they found another strait and another bay larger than the first two [see map opposite]. At this, being very joyous they suddenly turned back to tell it to the Captain.

“Amongst us we thought that they had perished: first, because

of the great storm; next, because two days had passed that we had not seen them. And being thus in doubt we saw the two ships under all sail, with flags flying, coming toward us. These suddenly discharged much artillery; at which we, very joyous, saluted them with artillery and shouts. Afterwards, all together, thanking God and the Virgin Mary, we went to seek further on.

“After having entered a strait [now known as Broad Reach] we found that there were two outlets. On that account the Cap-



MAGELLAN'S STRAIT
The passage is shown by the dotted line

tain again sent the two ships San Antonio and Concepción to see if the mouth towards the S.E. had an outlet beyond into the Peaceful Sea. [Does it?] One of these two ships named San Antonio did not wait for the other ship, because those that were inside wished to return to Spain. This they did. They took prisoner the captain of their ship. They wounded him and put him in irons. So they carried him off to Spain. And in this ship which went away was one of the two giants [Patagonians] whom we had taken, and when he felt the heat he died. [What

heat?] The other ship not being able to follow this one, was always waiting for it and fluttered hither and thither. While this happened, at night the other two ships with the Captain went together to examine the other mouth to the S.W., where we found a strait. At the end we arrived at a river which we named the River of Sardines because we found a great quantity of these fish. So we remained there four days to wait for the other two ships.

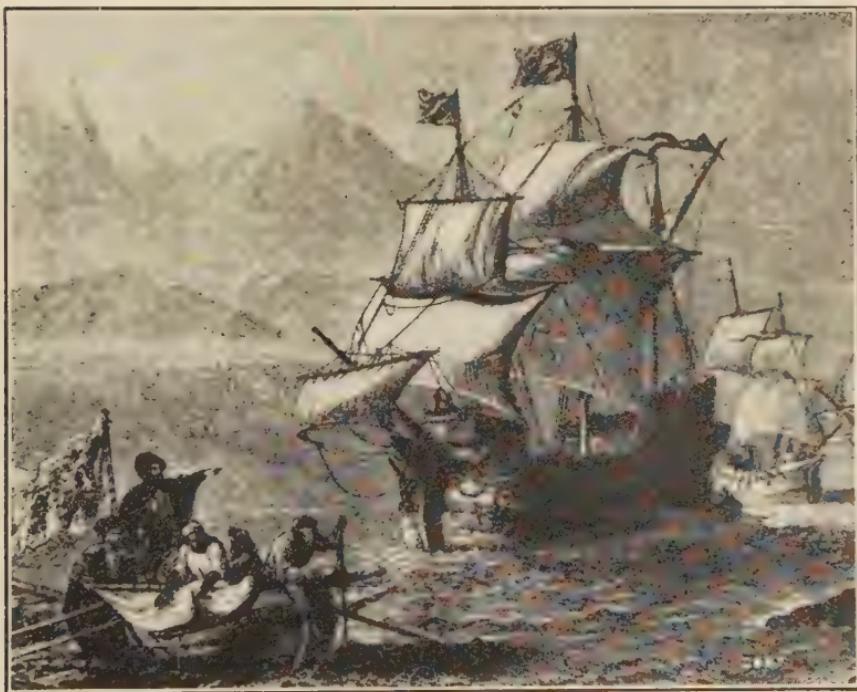
“A short time after, we sent a boat well supplied with men and provisions to discover the cape of the other sea. These remained three days in going and coming. They told us that they had found the cape, and the sea great and wide. At the joy which the Captain had at this he began to cry, and he gave the name of Desired Cape to this cape, as a thing which had been much desired for a long time. Having done that we turned back to find the two ships, but we found only the Concepción. We asked what had become of her companion. To this the captain of the Concepción replied that he knew nothing of her. The Captain-general sent back the Victoria as far as the entrance of the strait to see if the missing ship was there. He told the people of the Victoria that if they did not find the lost vessel they were to place a flag on the summit of a small hill, with a letter inside a pot placed on the ground near the flag, so that if the ship should by chance return it might see that flag and also find the letter, which would tell of the course the Captain was taking.

“If we had not found this strait to the Pacific Sea, the Captain-general had made up his mind to go as far as 75 degrees towards the Antarctic Pole. At that height in the summer there is no night, or very little. In winter there is no daylight, or very little. So that every one may believe this, when we were in these straits the night lasted only three hours, and this was in the month of October.”

THEIR SUFFERINGS ON THE PACIFIC

“Wednesday, the 28th of November, 1520, we came forth out of the strait and entered into the Pacific Sea, where we remained

three months and twenty days without taking in provisions. We ate only old biscuit reduced to powder, and full of grubs and stinking from the dirt of rats, and we drank water that was yellow and stinking. We also ate the ox-hides which were under the main-yard. They were very hard on account of the sun, rain



Victor Animatograph Co.

SEEKING THE PASSAGE THROUGH THE STRAITS

The passage is about 320 miles long and very crooked. Magellan spent 38 days in making his way through.

and wind. We left them for four or five days in the sea, and then we put them a little on the fire, and so ate them; also the sawdust of wood, and rats which cost half a crown each. [How?] Moreover, enough of them were not to be got. But this misfortune was the worst: the upper and lower gums of most of our men grew so much that they could not eat, and in this way so

many suffered that nineteen died, and the other giant and an Indian. However, thanks to the Lord, I had no sickness.

“During those three months and twenty days we went in an open sea, while we ran fully 4000 leagues in the Pacific Sea. This was well named Pacific, for during this same time we met with no storm, and saw no land except two small uninhabited islands, in which we found only birds and trees. We named them the Unfortunate Islands. They are 200 leagues apart and there is no place to anchor. There we saw many sharks. We ran each day fifty or sixty leagues. And if our Lord and His Mother had not aided us in giving us good weather we should all have died of hunger in this very vast sea. And I think that never man will undertake to perform such a voyage.”

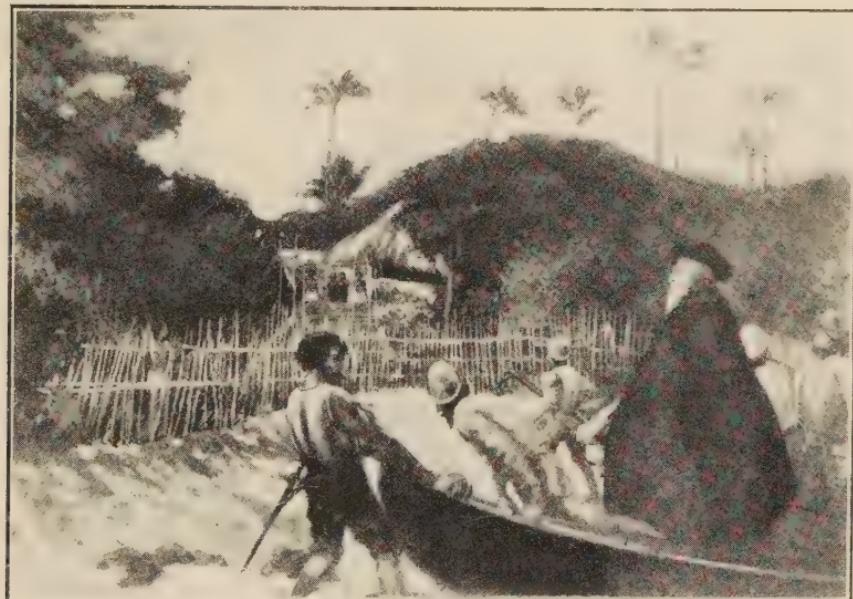
THE DEATH OF MAGELLAN IN THE PHILIPPINES

We can imagine the delight of Magellan and his people when after 98 days of suffering on the sea they at last fell upon the islands of the Ladrones or Robbers, a name afterwards given these islands because of the thievishness of the people (see map, p. 280). In the Philippines they found more agreeable people with whom they made friends. The Philippines had not been reached by the Portuguese, and Magellan wished to hold them for Spain. He therefore made a treaty of friendship with the king or rajah of the island of Cebu, who with his people for a time accepted the Christian religion. One of the neighbouring kings refused to accept the rule of the king of Cebu. Being invited to join an expedition against this king Magellan accepted, no doubt in the hope of making the rule of Spain and the Christian religion more respected among the islanders. This was the fatal step, made against the wishes of his companions, that brought the brilliant career of Magellan to its untimely end.

Magellan’s visit to the Philippines gave these islands to the Spanish nation. They were to remain in Spanish hands until they were taken by the army of the United States, with the help of the Philippine forces, in the Spanish-American war of 1898.

THE ITALIAN NOBLEMAN TELLS OF THE FIGHT

"We set out from Cebu at midnight. We were sixty men armed with corslets and helmets. There were with us the Christian king of Cebu, the prince and some of the chief men, and many others, divided among twenty or thirty boats. We arrived at Matan three hours before daylight. The Captain before



Keystone View Co.
MAGELLAN LANDING IN THE PHILIPPINES

attacking sent on shore a Moorish merchant to tell the islanders that if they would recognize the Christian king as their sovereign and obey the king of Spain, and pay us the tribute which had been asked, the Captain would become their friend; otherwise we should show how our lances wounded. The islanders were not terrified; they replied that if we had lances so also had they.

"We waited for daylight and then leaped into the water up to our thighs. We were forty-nine in number, the other eleven remaining in charge of the boats. When we reached land we

found the islanders 1500 in number, drawn up in three bands. They came down upon us with terrible shouts, two bands attacking us on the flanks, and the third in front. The Captain then divided his men in two parts. Our musketeers and crossbow-men fired for half an hour from a distance, but did nothing; since the bullets and arrows, though they passed through their shields made of thin wood, and perhaps wounded their arms, yet did not stop them. The Captain shouted not to fire, but he was not listened to. The islanders shouted more loudly, and springing from one side to the other to avoid our shots, they at the same time drew nearer to us, throwing arrows, javelins, spears hardened in fire, stones and even mud, so that we could hardly defend ourselves. Some of them cast lances pointed with iron at the Captain-general.

“He then, in order to scatter this multitude and to terrify them, sent some of our men to set fire to their houses. But this only made them come upon us with greater fury. They perceived that our bodies were defended, but that the legs were exposed, and they aimed at them principally. The Captain had his right leg piercéd by a poisoned arrow, on which account he gave orders to retreat by degrees; but almost all our men took to immediate flight, so that there remained hardly six or eight of us with him. We could make no more resistance. The bombards [small cannon] which we had in the boat were of no help to us, for the shallow water kept them too far from the beach. We retreated little by little, still fighting. We had got to the distance of a crossbow shot from the shore, having the water up to our knees, the islanders following and picking up again and again the spears they had already cast. As they knew the Captain they aimed specially at him, and twice they knocked the helmet off his head. He, with a few of us, like a good knight, remained at his post without choosing to retreat further.

“Thus we fought for more than an hour, until an Indian succeeded in thrusting a cane lance into the Captain’s face. He then, being angry, piercéd the Indian’s breast with his lance,

and left it in his body; and trying to draw his sword he was unable to draw it more than half way, on account of a javelin wound he had received in the right arm. The enemies seeing this, all rushed against him, and one of them with a great sword gave him a great blow on the left leg, which brought the Captain down on his face. Then the Indians threw themselves upon him, and ran him through with lances and swords, so that they deprived of life our mirror, light, comfort and true guide.

“Whilst the Indians were thus overpowering him, several times he turned round to see if we were all in safety, as though his stubborn fight had no other object than to give a chance for the retreat of his men. We who fought were covered with wounds, and seeing that he was dead, proceeded to the boats which were on the point of going away.

“This fatal battle was fought on the 27th of April of 1521, on a Saturday—a day which the Captain had chosen for himself, because he had a special regard for it.

“He died; but I hope that your Illustrious Highness will not allow his memory to be lost. One of his principal virtues was constancy in the most trying times. In the midst of the sea he was able to endure hunger better than we. He knew better than any other the true art of navigation, how to attempt the circuit of the globe, which he had almost completed.”

THE RETURN TO SPAIN OF THE SHIP VICTORIA

One of the two other ships tried to return across the Pacific and failed. The Victoria alone finished the circuit of the earth, after visiting many islands of the East Indies.

“In order to double the Cape of Good Hope we went as far as 42 degrees south latitude, and we remained off that cape for nine weeks on account of the gales which beat against our bows. At length, by the aid of God, we passed that terrible cape, but we were obliged to approach it within only five leagues distance. We then sailed towards the northwest for two whole months without ever taking rest; and in this short time we lost twenty-

one men either Christians or Indians. If God had not granted us favorable weather we should all have perished of hunger.

“Being in great need we decided to touch at the Cape Verde Islands. Knowing that we were in an enemy’s country, on sending the boat to get provisions, we charged the seamen to say to the Portuguese that we had sprung our foremast and that our ship was alone, our Captain-general having gone with the other two ships to Spain. With these good words, and giving some of our merchandise in exchange, we obtained two boat-loads of rice.

“In order to see whether we had kept an exact account of the days, we charged those who went ashore to ask what day of the week it was, and they were told by the Portuguese that it was Thursday, which was a great cause of wonder to us, since with us it was only Wednesday. I was more surprised than the others, since having always been in good health, I had always written down the day. But we were afterwards told that since we had always sailed towards the west, following the course of the sun, and had returned to the same place, we must have gained twenty-four hours, as is clear to anyone who thinks about it. [Is it?]

“The boat having returned for rice the second time to the shore, was held, with thirteen men who were in it. As we saw that, and from the movement in certain caravels suspected that they might wish to capture us, we at once set sail. We afterwards learned that our boat and men had been arrested because one of our men had told the truth and said that the Captain-general was dead, and that our ship was the only one remaining of Magellan’s fleet.

“At last, when it pleased Heaven, on Saturday, the 6th of September of the year 1522, we entered the bay of San Lucar; and of sixty men who composed our crew, we were reduced to only eighteen, and these for the most part sick. Of the others some died of hunger, some had run away, and some had been put to death for their crimes.

“Monday, the 8th of September, we cast anchor near the Mole of Seville, and discharged all the artillery. Tuesday we all went

in shirts and barefoot, with a taper in our hands, to visit the shrine of St. Maria of Victory, and of St. Maria de Antigua.

“The Chevalier, ANTONIO PIGAFETTA.”¹⁴

QUESTIONS

1. Magellan was a native of what country? For whom did he fight in the Indies? Who are the Malays?

2. Why did Magellan take service with the king of Spain? What did he propose to do for the king?

3. Did Magellan establish a Spanish trade-route to the Indies? Explain.

4. How does the voyage of Magellan compare with that of Columbus and Vasco da Gama in importance? in difficulty? in distance covered out of sight of land? Magellan’s Pacific voyage was over 10,000 miles.

5. Did Magellan fail to meet islands in the Pacific Ocean because there are none, or because he missed them?



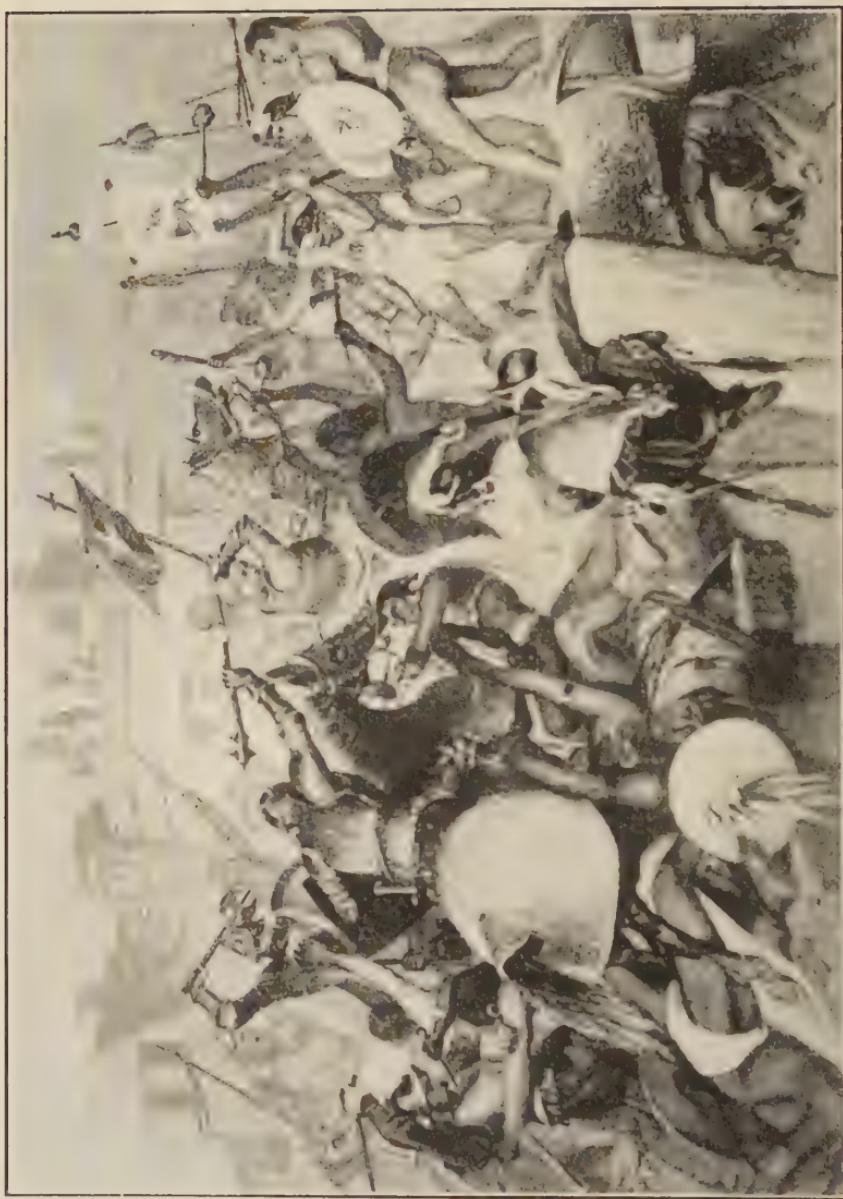
NEW WORLD REGARDED AS PART OF ASIA

After the discoveries of Balboa and Magellan it was generally agreed that South America was a new world, and it came to be known as America. But North America was not well explored for some years, and the map-makers in Europe knew very little about it. Some thought it was merely an extension of Asia. Others thought it was a great barrier in the way, perhaps largely surrounded by water. Clearly the man who made this odd map was of the first opinion. What discoveries does he seem to have heard about? The true position of Asia is shown by the dotted lines.

Keystone View Co.

CORTÉZ IN MEXICO

From a painting



CORTÉZ IN MEXICO, 1519

The governor of Cuba sent Cortéz in charge of an expedition to add to the discoveries that had already been made along the coast of Mexico. The ships sailed from Cuba across to the coast of Yucatan (see map, p. 246), and then moved northward, fighting the natives by the way. Soon rumors came to Cortéz of the great Montezuma, overlord of the Indian tribes of Mexico, who, it was said, had great quantities of gold. Montezuma could not be sure whether the strangers in their "floating cities" were men or gods. He sent messengers to them bearing rich gifts to win their favor or to bribe them to leave the country.

Burning his ships at Vera Cruz, to cut off all hope of retreat and to prevent any interference from the governor who had sent him, Cortéz set out for the interior with 400 men, a number of cannon and some armored horses. The sight of the horses filled the Indians with terror and amazement. The Spaniards were received by Montezuma in the great Aztec pueblo or city (now the City of Mexico), situated on one of three great shallow lakes on a plateau 7400 feet above sea-level. The city had a population of 70,000 people. It was connected with the surrounding country by great causeways of concrete. In the center was a large square surrounded by a stone wall, filled with temples brilliantly whitened, whose foundations were built in the form of pyramids. The altars of these temples reeked with the blood of human sacrifices to the Aztec gods.

The Aztecs soon realized that instead of gods they had welcomed cruel enemies bent upon their conquest. The fighting that followed was of the fiercest kind. When the conquest had been made, Cortéz built a Spanish city in place of the Aztec pueblo (see picture, p. 310), and introduced the Christian religion and the customs of Spain. The City of Mexico became the center of New Spain. From it explorations and conquests were made in all directions, some of them to the northward into California and New Mexico.



By Howard Pyle

Keystone View Co.

Many sailors of the other nations turned pirates in order to capture the rich Spanish galleons. These pirates used long, low, fast sailing sloops, absurdly small in comparison with the great galleons. Armed with guns and knives, they swarmed up the side of the larger vessel and took it by surprise. For their protection the treasure ships were later compelled to sail in fleets.

SPAIN'S SECOND RIVAL IN THE WEST: VERRAZANO SAILS FOR THE KING OF FRANCE IN SEARCH OF A NORTHERN ROUTE TO THE INDIES, 1524

Mexico is a land rich in minerals, especially silver. Before the coming of the Spaniards the Indians had opened mines and had taken from them considerable quantities of gold and silver, which they used chiefly for the making of ornaments. As the conquest of Mexico proceeded, many new mines were opened by the Spaniards, some of them of extraordinary richness. These mines often made their owners immensely rich, and the tax upon the metals taken out brought to the king of Spain great wealth. The mines were worked by Indian slaves, and the lack of men led to extensive slave-hunting expeditions, even as far as Texas. To secure these mines towns and forts were set up, and about them grew up agriculture and cattle-raising. Missions also were established.

No longer need the Spanish king feel that the Portuguese had had the best of it in all the new discoveries because of their capture of the wealthy trade of the Indies. The treasure ships that soon were ploughing their way across the Atlantic from Mexico to Spain were laden with such quantities of gold and silver as to astound the world. To the plunder of Mexico were soon added the still more astonishing riches of Peru and South America. America, then, was about to yield more wealth to Spain than Columbus had ever promised his sovereigns, or had imagined in his rosiest dreams.

And now the kings of France and Spain were at war, and French sailors were plundering the Spanish treasure ships. The French king, who had at last compelled his great lords to obey him, could see no reason why his own nation should not have some part in all these new discoveries. He jokingly asked the king of Spain to show him that part of Father Adam's will which gave all the world to him and Portugal. So Verrazano, a captain from Florence in Italy, was sent off on a voyage of discovery for France (see map, p. 83).

You will realize why Verrazano struck to the north when you come to the last part of his letter to the king, parts of which you are now to read. This was some two years after the return of Magellan's ship, which had proved that the way to the Indies by the southwest was too long and too difficult for trading there. But no one had yet proved that there was no route to the northwest, so Verrazano determined to try in that direction. In fact, men were to keep on trying in that direction for many years to come, partly on account of what Verrazano had to tell when he returned to Europe.

The part of the letter we are giving below tells of the voyage only so far as New York Harbor. From there Verrazano sailed along the southern shore of Long Island. He passed Block Island and entered Narragansett Bay, with which he was greatly pleased. After resting there he rounded Cape Cod, and later beheld the snow-tipped peaks of the White Mountains. He seems to have reached the Penobscot River and, on his way home to France, as far north as the 54th degree of latitude.

PARTS OF VERRAZANO'S LETTER TO THE KING

“To His Most Serene Majesty, The King of France:

“On the 17th of last January we set sail from a desolate rock near the island of Madeira, belonging to the king of Portugal, with fifty men; having provisions sufficient for eight months, arms, and other warlike munitions and naval stores. Sailing westward with a light and pleasant easterly breeze, in twenty-five days we ran 800 leagues. On the 24th of February we suffered as severe a tempest as any ship ever met with and lived. Pursuing our voyage towards the west, a little northwardly, in twenty-four days more, having run 400 leagues, we reached a new country, which had never before been seen by any one either in ancient or modern times [probably the South Carolina coast]. At first it appeared to be very low, but on approaching it to within a quarter of a league from the shore, we perceived, by the great fires near the coast, that it was inhabited.



Painting by Gros

Gramstorff Bros.

A meeting of two rival Kings in the time of the American discoveries: Charles V of Spain (in black) and Francis I of France. The meeting took place in the Church of St. Denis at Paris. On the right of Charles stands the prince of France who afterwards became Henry II. In the gallery at the left is Catherine de Medici, who became his queen.

“While at anchor on this coast, there being no harbor to enter, we sent the boat on shore with twenty-five men to obtain water, but it was not possible to land on account of the immense high surf thrown up by the sea. Many of the natives came to the beach, showing by friendly signs that we might trust ourselves on shore. One of their noble deeds of friendship deserves to be made known to your Majesty. A young sailor was attempting to swim ashore through the surf, to carry them some knick-knacks, as little bells, looking glasses and other like trifles. When he came near three or four of them he tossed the things to them, and turned about to get back to the boat; but he was thrown over by the waves and so dashed by them, that he lay, as it were, dead upon the beach.

“When these people saw him in this situation, they ran and took him by the head, legs and arms, and carried him to a distance from the surf. The young man, finding himself borne off in this way, uttered very loud shrieks in fear and dismay, while they answered as they could in their own language, showing him that he had no cause for fear. Afterwards they laid him down at the foot of a little hill and examined him, expressing the greatest astonishment at the whiteness of his skin. Our sailors in the boat, seeing a great fire made up and their companion placed very near it, imagined that the natives were about to roast him for food. But as soon as he had recovered his strength, they hugged him with great affection and took him to the shore. Then leaving him that he might feel more secure, they withdrew to a little hill, from which they watched him until he was safe in the boat.

“At this place was found an isthmus a mile wide and about 200 miles long, beyond which, from the ship, was seen the Eastern Sea. This is the one, without doubt, which goes about the end of India, China and Cathay. We sailed along this isthmus always in the hope of finding some strait, in order to reach the blessed shores of Cathay. To the isthmus was given the name Verrazano by the discoverer. [How could Verrazano have made this mistake?]

“Departing from that place and always following the shore, which turned somewhat to the north, we came, in the space of fifty leagues, to another land, which appeared much more beautiful and full of large forests. Going ashore with twenty men, we went back from the coast about two leagues, and found that the people had fled and hid themselves in the wood for fear. By searching around we discovered in the grass a very old woman and a young girl about eighteen or twenty, who had hidden themselves. The old woman carried two infants on her shoulders, and behind her neck a little boy eight years of age. When we came up to them they began to shriek and make signs to the men who had fled to the woods. We gave them part of our provisions which they accepted with delight; but the girl would not touch any, everything we offered to her being thrown down in great anger. We took the little boy from the old woman to carry with us to France, and would have taken the girl also, who was very beautiful and very tall; but it was impossible because of the loud shrieks she uttered as we attempted to lead her away. Having to pass some woods, and being far from the ship, we determined to leave her and take the boy only.”

IN NEW YORK HARBOR

“After having remained here three days, riding at anchor on the coast, as we could find no harbor, we determined to depart and coast along the shore to the northeast, keeping sail on the vessel only by day and coming to anchor by night. After proceeding 100 leagues we found a very pleasant situation among some steep hills, through which a very large river, deep at its mouth, forced its way to the sea [the Hudson]. We would not venture up in our vessel without a knowledge of the mouth; therefore we took the boat, and entering the river we found the country on its banks well peopled. They came towards us with evident delight, raising loud shouts of admiration, and showing us where we could most securely land with our boat. We passed up this river about half a league, when we found it formed a

most beautiful lake [New York Harbor], three leagues in circuit, upon which the people were rowing thirty or more of their small boats from one shore to the other, filled with multitudes who came to see us. All of a sudden a violent wind blew in from the sea, and forced us to return to our ship, greatly regretting to leave this region which seemed so extensive and delightful, and which we supposed must also contain great riches, as the hills showed many signs of minerals. Weighing anchor, we sailed towards the east. . . .”

VERRAZANO BELIEVES THE NEW LANDS TO BE
A GREAT NEW WORLD

“My intention in this voyage was to reach Cathay and the extreme east of Asia, not expecting to find such an obstacle of new land as I found; and if for some reason I did find such new land I thought there must be some strait through it to the Eastern Ocean. It was the opinion of the men of past times that our Western Ocean is one with the Eastern Ocean of India, without any land between, but this is now shown to be an error. This country which has been discovered, and which was unknown to the men of old, is another world, clearly being larger than our Europe, together with Africa and perhaps Asia, if we rightly judge its extent.

“We shall now briefly explain to your Majesty. The Spaniards have sailed south beyond the equator to the latitude of 54 degrees and there still found land without end. Turning about, they steered northward to the latitude of 21 degrees north, without finding an end of the continent. In the voyage we have just made by order of your Majesty, we reached the 54th line of north latitude, the point where we turned our course from the shore towards home. Beyond this point the Portuguese had already sailed as far north as the Arctic Circle without coming to the end of the land. Thus, adding the degrees of south latitude explored, which are 54, to those of the north, which are 66, the sum is 120, and therefore more than are contained in the latitude of Africa and Europe. And if the breadth of this newly dis-

covered country is as great as its extent of seacoast, it doubtless is greater than Asia in size.

“In this way we find the earth to be much larger than the men of old times thought it to be, who also believed that the earth had less land than water. I hope at another time to make this clear to your Majesty.

“All this land, or New World, is connected together and is not a part of Asia or Africa. It may join Europe by Norway and Russia. It would therefore be included between two oceans, the Western and the Eastern.

“In a short time, I hope, we shall have a more certain knowledge of these things, with the aid of your Majesty, whom I pray Almighty God to prosper in everlasting glory, that we may complete this study of our world, in fulfillment of the holy words of the gospel.

“Written on board the ship Dolphin, in the port of Dieppe in Normandy, the 8th of July, 1524.

“Your humble servant,

“JANUS VERRAZANUS.”¹⁵

QUESTIONS

1. Who was Verrazano and for whom did he sail?
2. What was he trying to do on this voyage?
3. Was Verrazano right in saying he was the first European ever to have seen the Atlantic coast of North America?
4. Explain briefly why Verrazano thought the new lands were a new world and not a part of Asia?
5. Why did he think the earth was larger than the men of older times had supposed it to be?
6. Is it true that there is more land than water on the earth, as Verrazano supposed?
7. Why did he think the new world was larger than Europe with Africa and perhaps Asia added? Is this so?
8. Show on your map the route taken by Verrazano. Was he the first European to visit New York Harbor?

CARTIER ON THE ST. LAWRENCE RIVER, 1534-1542

Ten years after the voyage of Verrazano another Frenchman again attempted to find a northwest passage to the Indies. This was Jacques Cartier, who had already visited the fishing banks of Newfoundland. Cartier made three voyages to the region of the



By C. W. Jeffreys

Victor Animatograph Co.

CARTIER AT HOCHELAGA (MONTREAL), 1535

St. Lawrence. On the second he sailed up the river to Stadacona, the Indian village which later became Quebec. In the smaller of his two vessels he then followed the river as far as the position of Montreal, where another Indian village was located, called Hochelaga. Cartier did not succeed in finding either the passage or the gold and silver he was seeking, but he set up the claims of his king to this region, which afterwards became New France (see map, p. 83). Below is given a part of the old account which tells of his visit to the two places we have mentioned.

“Our captain then caused our boats to be set in order, that with the next tide he might go up higher into the river to find some safe harbor for our ships; and we passed up the river, against the stream, about ten leagues, where we found a pleasant sound very fit to harbor our ships therein. We named it the Holy Cross [now the St. Charles River]. Near unto it there is a village, whereof Donnacona is lord. It is called Stadacona, as goodly a plot of ground as possibly may be seen, very fruitful, full of goodly trees even as in France . . .”

THE VISIT TO HOCHELAGA

“Our captain, the next day very early in the morning, having gorgeously dressed himself, caused all his company to be set in order to go to see the town of those people; with whom went also five gentlemen and twenty mariners, leaving the rest to look to our boats. After we had gone about four or five miles, we met by the way one of the chiefest lords of the city, accompanied with many more, who, so soon as he saw us, made signs to us that we must rest in that place where they had made a great fire; and so we did. After that this lord began to make a long speech, in sign of mirth and friendship, showing our captain and all his company a joyful face and good-will. Our captain gave him two hatchets, a pair of knives, and a cross which he made him kiss, and then put it about his neck, for which he gave our captain hearty thanks. This done we went along; and about a mile and a half farther we began to find goodly and large fields, full of such corn as the country yieldeth.

"In the midst of those fields is the city of Hochelaga, placed near to a great mountain, that is tilled around about very fertile, on the top of which you may see very far. We named it Mount Royal [Montreal]. The city of Hochelaga is round, enclosed with three rows of palisades, one within another, in height about two rods. It hath but one gate, which is shut with piles, stakes and bars. Over it and also in many places of the wall, there be places to run along, and ladders to get up, all full of stones for the defense of it.

"There are in the town about fifty houses, about fifty paces long and twelve or fifteen broad, built all of wood, covered over with bark very finely joined together. Within the houses there are many rooms. In the midst of every one is a great court, in the middle whereof they make their fire. They live in common together; then do the husbands, wives and children each one retire to their chambers. They have also on the tops of their houses certain garrets, wherein they keep their corn to make their bread withal."³⁷



From an old print

Victor Animatograph Co.

Cartier sets up the Cross of France at Stadacona (Quebec) in the presence of the Indians, 1536.

THE PACIFIC COASTLINE EXPLORED: THE GOVERNOR OF MEXICO SENDS CABRILLO IN SEARCH OF THE MYTHICAL STRAIT OF ANIAN AND OF NEW PROVINCES FOR SPAIN, 1542

The latter part of Verrazano's letter to the French king tells us that by the time of his voyage in 1524 the Atlantic coastline of the new lands had been examined from the Straits of Magellan on the south to the ice-bound regions of the north. Nowhere in all the distance had a strait been found into the Eastern Sea, although men were still hopeful of finding one. You will notice from the letter, too, how at last it begins to dawn upon the minds of Europeans that a new world had been discovered. It was to take a great many years to learn about the interior of this new world; but at least its main outlines were being made out. The Spanish had soon learned of the Pacific shores to the west of Central and South America. After his conquest of Mexico Cortéz sent expeditions to examine the country to the north of him, for rumors of gold were heard from these regions.

Just about the time Verrazano was making his voyage, Cortéz wrote to the king of Spain that he was convinced there must be a strait to the north of Mexico, from the Florida country to the Pacific, that would provide a much shorter and much safer voyage to the South Sea than the route of Magellan. It would be safer because it would doubtless lie wholly within the king's territories. Cortéz therefore sent expeditions north in search of this strait, and for gold as well, both by sea and by land. The name then given to this mythical strait was Anian.

Within fifteen years after his letter, Lower California—as we now call it—had been discovered, and found to be a peninsula and not an island. Soon after three expeditions were sent out, two to go by land—those of Coronado and Alarcón—and one by sea. We shall not be able to follow the land expeditions; but we shall now have part of the account of the sea expedition that made known the coast of California. An earlier expedition had

reached as far as Point Engaño on the coast of Lower California. It will be well to follow the narrative on the map (p. 246). The narrative was written by a man on Cabrillo's ship.

THE SHIPS

"For the expedition the San Salvador, flagship, and the Victoria, frigate, were equipped. The vessels were smaller than any of our coasting schooners. They were poorly built and very badly outfitted. Their anchors and iron work were carried by men from the Gulf of Mexico to the Pacific. They were manned by conscripts and natives, were badly provisioned, and the crews subject to that deadly scourge of the sea, scurvy."

THE NARRATIVE

"Juan Rodríguez Cabrillo set sail from the port of Navidad to explore the coast of New Spain on the 27th of June, 1542.

"Sunday, July 2nd, they sighted Lower California. On account of the weather it took them almost four days to cross over. On Monday they anchored at the Point of California."

THEY PASS THE FARTHEST KNOWN POINT

"On Sunday, the 20th of August, they left the island of San Bernardo and approached Point Engaño [now Pt. Baja]. And thus they sailed along until the next Monday, following the coast. And about ten leagues from Point Engaño they discovered a good port in which they cast anchor and took on water and wood. On the following Tuesday Captain Cabrillo went ashore, took possession there in the name of his Majesty and of the Most Illustrious Señor Don Antonio de Mendoza [Viceroy of Mexico], and named it Port of the Possession. They remained in this place until Sunday, the 27th of the month, repairing the sails and taking on water.

"On the Friday following five Indians came to the beach and were brought to the ships. They appeared to be intelligent Indians. Entering the ship they pointed at and counted the Spaniards who were there, and said by signs that they had seen

other men who wore beards, and who brought dogs, crossbows and swords [probably some of Alarcón's or Coronado's band]. The Indians came smeared over with a white paste on the thighs, body and arms, and wore the paste like slashes, so that they appeared like men in hose and slashed doublets. They made signs that Spaniards were five days from there. The Captain gave them a letter to carry to these Spaniards."

IN SAN DIEGO BAY, SEPTEMBER 28, 1542

"On Thursday they went about six leagues along a coast running north-northwest, and discovered a port, closed and very good, which they named San Miguel. Having cast anchor in it, they went ashore where there were people. Three of these waited, but all the rest fled. To these three they gave some presents. They showed signs of great fear. On the night of this day the men went ashore from the ships to fish with a net, and it appears that here there were some Indians, and that they began to shoot at them with arrows and wounded three men. Next day in the morning they went with the boat farther into the port, which is large, and brought two boys, who understood nothing by signs. They gave them both shirts and sent them away immediately.

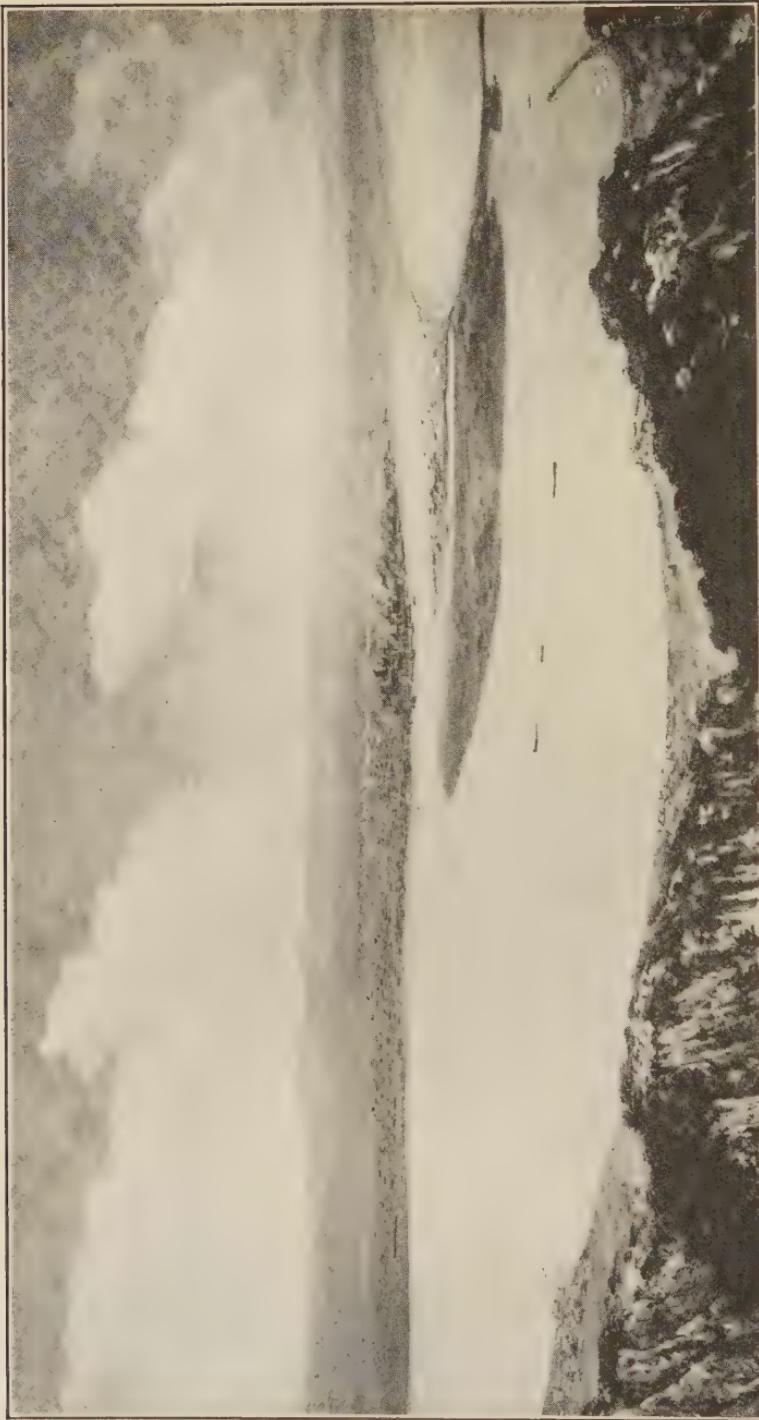
"Next day in the morning three adult Indians came to the ships and said by signs that in the interior men like us were traveling about, bearded, clothed, and armed like those in the ships. They made signs that they carried crossbows and swords; and they made gestures with the right arm as if they were throwing lances, and ran around as if they were on horseback. They made signs that they were killing many native Indians, and that for this reason they were afraid. These people are good-looking and large. They go about covered with skins of animals. While the ships were in this port a heavy storm occurred, but since the port is good they did not feel it at all. This is the first storm they have experienced. They remained in this port until the following Tuesday.

"On the 8th of October they drew near to the mainland in a

Courtesy of G. A. Davidson

SAN DIEGO HARBOR FROM THE POINT AT THE ENTRANCE

The first place visited by Cabrillo within the territory of the United States. The mountains in the far distance to the right are in Lower California, Mexico.



large bay [Santa Monica Bay], which they called the Bay of the Smokes because of the many smokes which they saw on it. This bay is a good port, and the country is good, with many valleys, plains and groves."

ALONG THE COAST OF CALIFORNIA TO DRAKE'S BAY,
MISSING THE BAYS OF MONTEREY AND SAN FRANCISCO

"On the 15th of October they continued on their course along the coast for about ten leagues. All the way there were many canoes, for the whole coast is very densely populated, and many Indians kept boarding the ships. They pointed out the pueblos [villages] and told us their names. They are in a very good country, with fine plains and many groves. The Indians go dressed in skins. They said that in the interior there were many pueblos, and much maize three days' journey from there. They also said there were many cows [elk?]; these they call Cae. They also told us of people bearded and clothed.

"On the 18th of the month they proceeded along the coast, and because there was a fresh wind and canoes did not come to them, they drew near to a headland which forms a cape like a galley, and named it Cape Galera [Point Conception]. And because a strong northwest wind struck them they stood off shore and discovered two islands. [Really three islands: Santa Cruz, Santa Rosa and San Miguel; two of these overlap and were first thought to be one.] They are inhabited, and in the small one there is a good port. They remained in these islands until the following Wednesday because it was very stormy.

"At four o'clock on Saturday night, November 11, when lying-to at sea about six leagues from the coast [off Pt. Pinos] waiting for morning, there blew up so heavy a gale that they could not carry a palm of sail, and were forced to scud with a small foresail with much labor the whole night. The storm was as severe as any there could be in Spain. On Saturday night following they lost sight of the Victoria.

"On Wednesday, the 15th of the month, they sighted the Vic-



*Painting by Daniel Sayre Grossenbark—Owned by County National Bank of Santa Barbara. Courtesy of F. A. Hoefer, President
AN ARTIST'S CONCEPTION OF THE LANDING OF CABRILLO AT SANTA BARBARA*

toria, whereupon they heartily thanked God, for they had thought her lost. Those on that ship had had greater labor and risk than those of the captain's ship, since it was a small vessel and had no deck.

“On the following Thursday, the 16th of November, they found themselves at daybreak in a great bay [Drake's Bay] which came at a turn, and which appeared to have a port and river. They held on, beating about that day and night and on the following Friday, until they saw that there was neither river nor shelter. In order to take possession they cast anchor in 45 fathoms, but they did not dare go ashore because of the high sea. This bay is in 39 degrees, and its entire shore is covered with pines clear to the sea.”

THEY WINTER ON SAN MIGUEL ISLAND, OFF
SANTA BARBARA

“On the 23rd of the month, they arrived, on the return, in the islands of San Lucas at one of them called La Posesión. They had run the entire coast, point by point from Cape Pinos to the islands, and had found no shelter whatever, wherefore they were forced to return to said island.

“Passing the winter on the island, on the 3rd of the month of January, 1543, Juan Rodríguez Cabrillo, captain of the ships, departed from this life, as a result of a fall which he suffered on this island when they were there before, from which he broke an arm near the shoulder. He left as captain, the chief pilot, who was one Bartolomé Ferrelo, a native of the Levant. At the time of his death the Captain charged them not to leave off exploring as much as possible of all that coast. They named the island the Island of Juan Rodríguez.”

FERRELO RETURNS NORTH AND APPARENTLY REACHES
THE COAST OF OREGON

“On the 28th of February, at daybreak, the wind shifted directly to the southwest, and did not blow hard. This day they took the latitude in 43 degrees. [Where is this?] Toward night



From a photograph

AT CAPE BLANCO, OREGON

Victor Animatograph Co.

An historian thinks the farthest point north reached by Ferrelo was $42\frac{1}{2}$ degrees. Where is this?

the wind freshened. They ran this night to the west-northwest with great difficulty, and in the morning the wind shifted to the southwest with great fury, the seas coming from many directions, causing them great labor and breaking over the ships. And as they had no decks, if God had not aided them they could not have escaped. Not being able to lay-to they were forced to scud north-east toward the land; and now, thinking themselves lost, they commended themselves to Our Lady of Guadalupe and made their vows. Thus they ran until three o'clock in the afternoon with great fear and toil, because they concluded that they were about to be lost, for they saw many signs that land was near by.

"At this hour a very heavy rain storm came from the north which drove them south with foresails lowered all night and until sunset the next day. And as there was a high sea from the south it broke every time over the prow and swept over them as over a rock. The wind shifted to the northwest with great fury, forcing them to scud to the southeast, until Saturday the 3rd of March, with a sea so high that they became crazed, and if God and his blessed Mother had not saved them they could not have escaped. On Saturday at midday the wind calmed down and remained in the northwest, for which they gave heartfelt thanks to our Lord. With respect to food they also suffered hardship, because they had nothing but damaged biscuit."

BACK ON THE COAST OF MEXICO

"On Monday, the 2nd day of April, they left the island of Cedros to return to New Spain, because they had no supplies with which to again attempt to explore the coast. They arrived in the port of Navidad on Saturday, the 14th day of the month of April. As captain of the ships came Bartolomé Ferrelo, chief pilot of the ships, in place of Juan Rodríguez Cabrillo, who died on the island of La Posesión."¹⁶

QUESTIONS

1. Who was Cabrillo and for whom was he sailing?
2. What was he to do on his voyage?
3. What was the result of his voyage?
4. Show on your map the route taken by the ships of Cabrillo and Ferrelo.
5. What parts of the coastline of North America yet remained to be explored after Cabrillo's voyage?
6. Can you find the stories of these later explorations?

HOW AMERICA GOT ITS NAME

Some of the men who were with Columbus on one or the other of his first two voyages were quite stirred by his accounts of pearls on the mainland he had touched on his third voyage, and quietly sailed away in 1499 to make themselves rich by finding some. There were two of these expeditions. On one of them was Americus Vespuceius, a Florentine who had been a merchant but who later made many voyages. He wrote a letter about his voyage to the new lands (South America), in which he seemed to say that he had found a new world. This was very surprising to Europeans who thought Columbus had merely touched the coasts of Asia, for Columbus did not tell about touching the new mainland himself until some years later. In a new geography that was just being printed in Europe the letter of Americus Vespuceius was included, and one of the men who made the book suggested that the new mainland be named America after him, because they supposed he had found it. The idea was taken up, and as the knowledge of the New World grew from the later discoveries, the name gradually spread over all the new lands. It was in this odd way that America got its name, and it was probably never intended that Columbus should have been deprived of the honor of having the New World named after him, which would have been the natural and just thing.

On the opposite page is an interesting old map which shows the New World at last clearly separated from Asia. This map was made in 1541 and has the word America on both continents for the first time.



THE NEW WORLD CALLED AMERICA

This map was made in Europe in 1541. Why is the west coast of North America so poorly drawn? What other errors do you see?

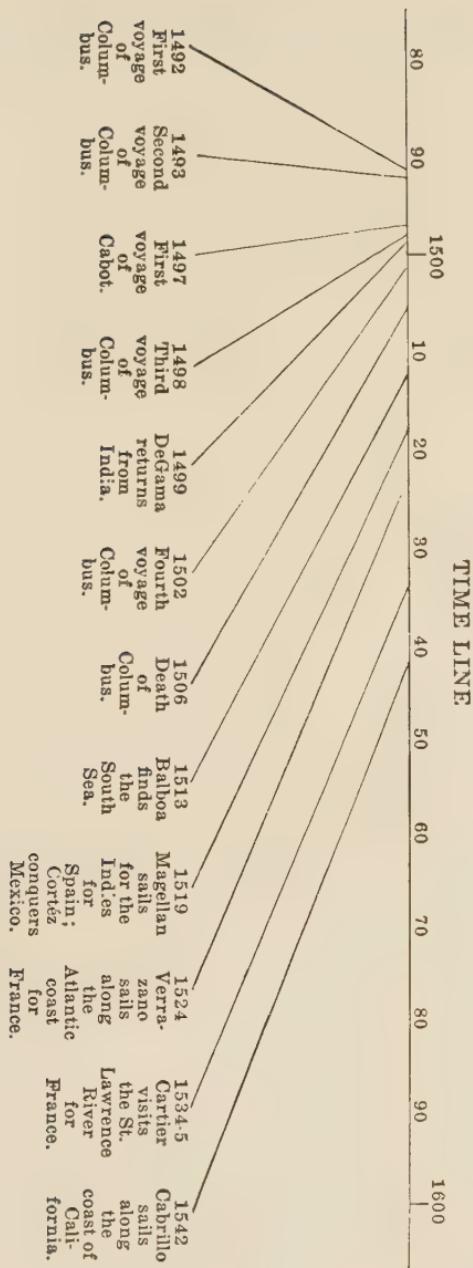
REVIEW OF PART TWO

Our purpose in presenting the stories of Part Two, from Columbus to Cabrillo, has been to have you see how gradually, and for what reasons, and by whom, the outlines of the American continents were made out.

QUESTIONS

In answering the questions below, refer to the time line on the opposite page.

1. All these discoveries were made in how many years?
2. If Europeans realized that a new world had been discovered by the time of Verrazano, how long had it taken to learn this?
3. In what parts of which centuries was the New World discovered?
4. How many of the voyages of Columbus were made before 1500?
5. Who found the West Indies? the mainland of South America?
6. What nation first explored Central America and the Gulf of Mexico? Mention two leading explorers there.
7. Who helped to discover the Atlantic coastline of North America?
8. What nation first explored the Pacific coastline of America?
9. Mention two men who helped to discover the shape of South America?
10. What nations took the principal part in the discovery of the American continents? Who were some of the important discoverers and explorers for each?



W. F. Mawell

THE NORTHWEST PASSAGE

Painting by Millais



The search for a passage by sea to the Pacific Ocean through the icy region north of America was kept up during the seventeenth, eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. The passage was first made by Sir Robert M'Clure in 1850, partly over the ice. During this long period many voyages of exploration were made, which were of thrilling interest to seamen. An old and disabled captain is shown here, listening to an account of an expedition. The first all-water voyage was made by Captain Roald Amundsen in 1903-5 in the ship *Gjøa*.

PART THREE

THE RIVAL NATIONS OF EUROPE

INTRODUCTORY

Once it became clear that there was a whole new world in America to be had for the taking, each strong nation in Europe tried to take as much of it as possible. But before we tell of this you must first understand something of what was going on in Europe, because the very nations that were to contend with one another for the lands of America were having serious religious troubles, and these troubles had an important influence on the history of America.

This may be surprising, for so far in our main story we have noticed that all the nations of Europe belonged to the same Christian church, the Roman Catholic with the Pope at its head. But while the early discoveries were going on, that is to say, in the first half of the sixteenth century (1500 to 1550) a great change had come over Europe in matters of religion.

By the end of this period the people of nearly all the European nations had been split into religious groups. Those who objected to the Catholic Church were called Protestants, who also differed more or less among themselves. These differences remain today. Every boy or girl who grows up in the United States is familiar with the fact of a variety of churches. Besides the original Catholic Church there are a number of Protestant churches, such as the Episcopal, Presbyterian, Baptist, Methodist, Lutheran and Unitarian—to mention a few only. These differences were beginning at the time of which we are speaking.

Today we have learned what is called religious toleration; that is, a willingness to allow each person to follow that religion which seems to him best. But this lesson was learned by the

people of Europe and America with great difficulty, and only after much persecution and bloodshed. Since each group regarded its religious faith as the true one, each exerted every effort to spread its beliefs among all people and to prevent the growth of others. We shall not be able to give here a full account of the religious struggle in Europe. It is a long and difficult story. But in order to understand American history some reference to it must be made.

In all this we should remember that whatever one's own religion may be, and however much one may be attached to it, others with a different faith and a different training are quite as likely to be as sincere and as devoted about their own. This is the essence of the lesson of religious toleration. One of the good things about the study of history is that from it we come to realize what sufferings and sacrifices have been undergone in learning the very difficult lessons that must be learned in order to live happily and justly on this earth. As we read the painful story of the religious struggles of the past, the one great thing that comes to us, above all feelings of sympathy or indignation, is the wonderful blessing our ancestors have left us, and for which they paid so highly—the blessing of religious toleration. Perhaps it may foster in us a desire to destroy some other great evil that still remains in the world, and to send on to the people of the future some other great blessing. For this is the way progress is made.

There is one feature of these religious struggles that should be noticed. Doubtless most of the people of Europe, especially the common people, were honestly concerned about religion for its own sake. But we must notice that many of the kings and princes and other powerful people had their own private ambitions and were not so much interested in religion itself as they were in what they should gain or lose by the changes that were taking place. These struggles, therefore, were not merely religious; they were also the struggles of contending kings, princes and nations.

HOW ENGLAND BECAME PROTESTANT

The religious struggle in Europe began among the learned men. The Bible at that time was in Latin or Greek and only the learned men could read it. Some of them found things in the Bible which they thought did not agree with many of the ideas and practices of the Church, and they preached and wrote books to show these things to the people. In this they were helped by the invention of the printing press which made more and cheaper books. Soon the Bible was translated into the European lan-



Drawing by Sir John Gilbert

Keystone View Co.

During the Middle Ages the Bible was in the Latin language and the common people could not read it. When the Greek and Latin learning was revived in Europe, men began to translate the Bible into the different European languages. At first Henry VIII persecuted the men who translated the Bible into English. Later so many people demanded it that he permitted the use of an English Bible. He is shown here receiving a copy as a gift. Henry was interested in the language and writings of Greece and Rome. For centuries these were almost unknown in Europe. When men began to study the language and writings and civilization of the Greeks and Romans it was called the "Revival of Learning" and the "New Learning."

guages and the common people came to know more about the Christian religion than ever before. Some of them took up the ideas of the learned men and began to break away from the Catholic Church and to set up what we now call the Protestant churches.

All this excitement among the common people about religion did not please the kings and princes. They might object to the Pope's power in their own affairs, but they did not want the people to take things into their own hands for that would make trouble. What they wanted from the people was good order and quiet obedience to their commands. This explains the attitude of Henry VIII of England. Although he was somewhat of a scholar and interested in the New Learning (see caption below picture, p. 181), he was much opposed to its disturbing influence in religion. He even wrote a book against the new ideas of Luther, the Protestant leader in Germany. The book so pleased the Pope that he called Henry "Defender of the Faith."

The part played by the kings in these religious contests for their own interests is well shown by the story that follows. This tells of the quarrel of Henry VIII of England with the Pope, and of the separation of the Church of England from the Catholic Church. Kings of England had quarreled with the Pope before, and the powerful men of that country had often objected to what they called the Pope's meddling in English affairs. They objected also to the loss to England of the large sums of money in the form of gifts and church fees that went to Rome, in Italy, where the Pope lived. The Church monasteries controlled about a third of the land in England and they objected to this.

While Henry in his book had defended the Pope and opposed the Protestants, his attitude toward the Pope now changed. This was twenty years after he had come to the throne of his father, Henry VII of John Cabot's time. Henry wanted something the Pope would not give him. He and his Spanish queen had a daughter living but no son. As the English people were as yet quite unused to queens, the King was greatly worried because he

Painting by Vogel

The leader of the Protestants was Martin Luther who lived in Germany. At one time he was in hiding at the castle of a prince who was one of his followers. Luther is shown here preaching to the household of the Prince.

Gramstorff Bros.



had no son to follow him on the throne. This was one reason why he had become dissatisfied with his first marriage. Another reason was that he had fallen in love with a lady of his court, Anne Boleyn, whom he wished to marry. But a divorce required the consent of the Pope, which the Pope hesitated to give. There was a great amount of talk and bargaining which came to nothing. At last the King lost what little patience he had, declared himself the head of the Catholic Church in England, and forbade all dealings with the Pope. He closed the monasteries, took their treasure for himself, and gave their lands to the nobles, who promptly sided with him. Those who would not accept Henry as the head of the Church in England were severely punished, some being put to death.

Certain changes were made in the Church in the direction of Protestantism but these were largely matters of form. Henry was at heart too good a Catholic to make many changes in religion. But the Bible was ordered translated into English and placed in the churches for all to read, and the services were to be in English. These changes were all made by Henry's obedient Parliament. But the English people were still mostly Catholic and loved that church.

The extracts that follow were written by men who lived at that time. The first, written by the ambassador from Venice, is an attractive picture of Henry as a young man, before he had displayed the cruelty and cowardice of his later life.

“His Majesty is twenty-nine years old and extremely handsome. On hearing that the king of France wore a beard he allowed his own to grow, and as it is reddish, he has now a beard that looks like gold. He is a good musician, composes well, is a most capital horseman, a fine jouster, speaks good French, Latin and Spanish; is very religious. He is very fond of hunting, and never hunts without tiring eight or ten horses, which he causes to be stationed beforehand along the line of country he means to take; and when one is tired he mounts another, and before he gets home they are all exhausted. He is extremely fond of tennis,



Painting by Holbein

KING HENRY VIII OF ENGLAND

Keystone View Co.

at which game it is the prettiest thing in the world to see him play, his fair skin glowing through a shirt of finest texture. He gambles to the amount occasionally, it is said, of from six thousand to eight thousand ducats in a day.

“He is affable and gracious, harms no one and is satisfied with his own dominions, having often said to me, ‘Sir Ambassador, we want all princes to content themselves with their own territories; we are satisfied with this island of ours.’ He seems extremely desirous of peace. He is very rich. His father left him ten millions of ready money in gold. The Queen is the sister of the mother of the king of Spain. She is thirty-five years old and not handsome, though she has a very beautiful complexion. She is religious, and as virtuous as words can express. I have seen her but seldom.

“The Cardinal of York [Wolsey] is of low origin. He rules both the King and the entire kingdom. On my first arrival he used to say to me, ‘His Majesty will do so and so.’ Later, by degrees, he forgot himself, and commenced saying, ‘We shall do so and so.’ At this present he has reached such a pitch that he says, ‘I shall do so and so.’ He is about forty-six years old, very handsome, learned, extremely eloquent, of vast ability. All state affairs are managed by him, let their nature be what it may.”¹⁷

HENRY'S FRIENDSHIP FOR SIR THOMAS MORE

The King favored men of learning and was especially fond of Thomas More, one of the great scholars of Europe who were doing so much to acquaint the people with the ancient Greek and Latin learning. More had been given a very high position by the King, and was a man of great personal charm and very witty. He was to lose his life for refusing to approve the King's conduct toward the Pope. You will see from the next extract, written by More's son-in-law, how well More judged the King's character.

“So much pleasure did the King take in More's company that his Grace would sometimes suddenly come to his house at Chelsea to be merry with him. One time, unlooked for, the King came

to dinner. After dinner, in a fair garden of his, the King walked with him for the space of an hour, holding his arm about his neck. As soon as his Grace was gone, I, rejoicing, told Sir Thomas More how happy he was whom the King had so familiarly entertained, as I never had seen him do to any before except Cardinal Wolsey. ‘I thank our Lord, son,’ quoth he, ‘I find his Grace my very good lord indeed, and I do believe he doth favor me as much as any subject within this realm. Howbeit I may tell thee, I have no cause to be proud thereof. For if [taking off] my head would win him a castle in France, it should not fail to go.’

“One time, walking along the Thames’ side with me at Chelsea, in talking of other things, Sir Thomas More said to me: ‘Now, would to God, son Roper, I were put in a sack and now cast into the Thames, if three things were well established in Christendom.’ ‘What great things be these, Sir,’ quoth I, ‘that should move you so to wish?’ ‘I’ faith, they be these, son,’ said he, ‘The first is, that whereas the most part of Christian princes be at mortal wars, they were all at universal peace. The second, that where the Church of Christ is at this present sore afflicted with many heresies and errors, it were well settled in perfect uniformity of religion. The third, that where the matter of the King’s marriage is now come into question, it were to the glory of God and quietness of all parties brought to a good conclusion.’ Thus did it appear that all his trouble and pains were bestowed only upon the service of God, the King and the realm. I heard him in his latter time to say that he never asked of the King for himself the value of one penny.”

“Now upon More’s resignation of his office [as Lord Chancellor] came Thomas Cromwell, then in the King’s high favor, to More on a message from the King. When they had talked together, ‘Mr. Cromwell,’ quoth he, ‘you are now entered into the service of a most noble, wise and liberal prince. If you will follow my poor advice, you shall, in counsel-giving unto his Grace, ever tell him what he *ought* to do, but never tell him what

he is able to do. So shall you show yourself a true faithful servant, and a right worthy councillor. For if the lion [the King] knew his own strength, hard were it for any man to rule him.' '¹⁸

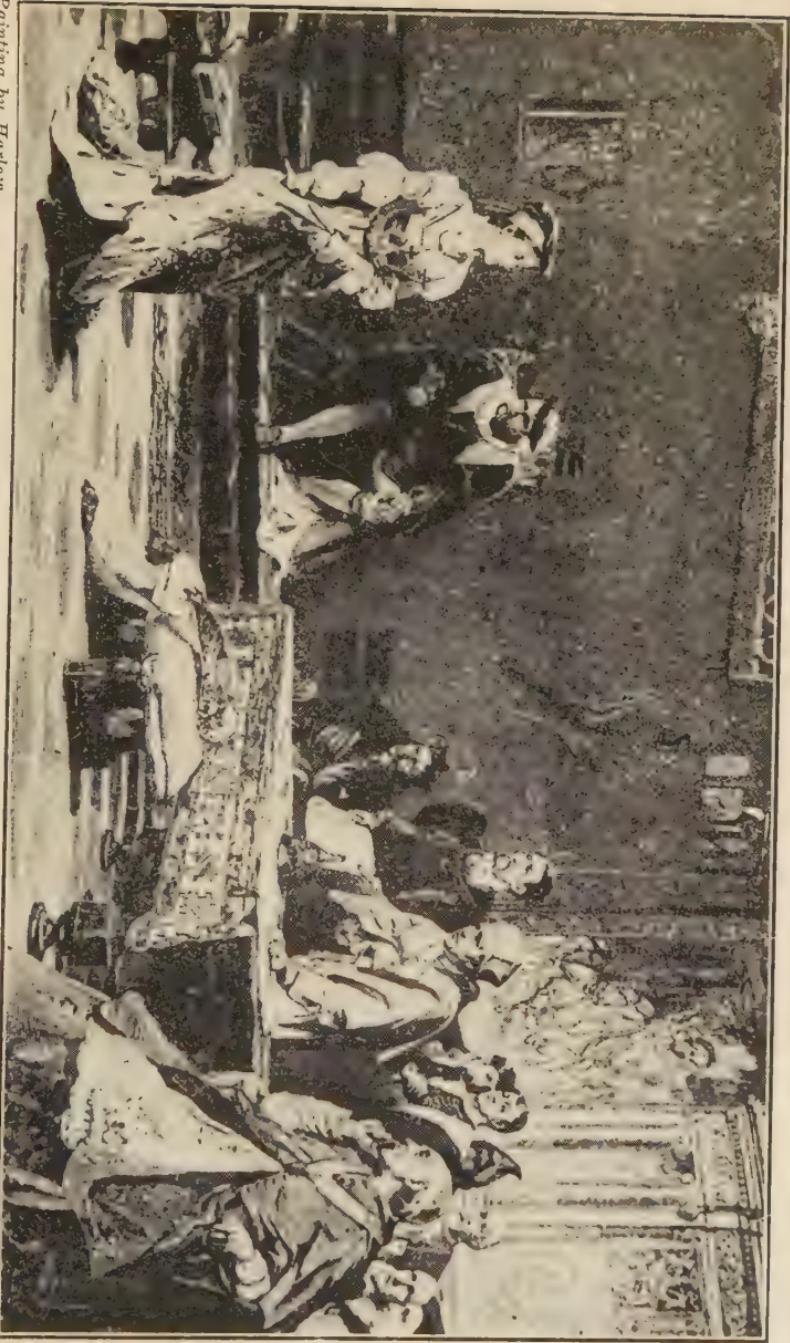
QUEEN CATHERINE BEFORE THE POPE'S COURT IN LONDON

For a long time Henry tried to obtain the Pope's consent to his divorce. Following is an old account of the trial of the case before a court in London ordered by the Pope. Nothing came of this, for the Queen was bitterly opposed to the divorcee, as you will see. It was after this incident that the King made his bold stand against the Pope, and declared himself head of the English Church.

"The court being furnished and ordered, the judges commanded the crier to proclaim silence; then was the judges' commission, which they had of the Pope, read openly before all the audiencee there assembled. That done, the crier called the King by the name of 'King Henry of England, come into the court,' etc. With that the King answered and said, 'Here, my Lords!' Then he called also the Queen, by the name of 'Catherine, Queen of England, come into the court,' etc.; who made no answer but rose up out of her chair where she sat, and because she could not come directly to the King because of the distance which separated them, she took pains to go about unto the King, kneeling down at his feet in the sight of all the court and assembly, to whom she said in broken English, as followeth:

" 'Sir,' quoth she, 'I beseech you for all the love that hath been between us, and for the love of God, let me have justice and right; take upon me some pity and compassion, for I am a poor woman and a stranger born out of your dominion; I have here no assured friend. I flee to you as to the head of justice within this realm. Alas! Sir, wherein have I offended you? I take God and all the world to witness, that I have been to you a true, humble and obedient wife, that never said or did anything contrary to your will or pleasure. I loved all those whom you loved only for your sake, whether I had cause or not, and whether

Painting by Harlow



THE DIVORCE TRIAL

The Pope was represented at this trial by two cardinals of the Catholic Church, one being the English Cardinal Wolsey, Prime Minister of the King, who lost the King's favor when he failed to bring about the divorce. Catherine was forty-four years of age. She is shown in the picture as a young woman.

Victor Animatograph Co.

they were my friends or my enemies. If there be any just cause by the law that you can offer against me, I am well content to depart to my great shame and dishonor; and if there be none, then here I most lowly beseech you to let me remain in my former estate, and receive justice at your hands. I most humbly require you, in the way of charity, and for the love of God, who is the just judge, to spare me this new court until I may learn what way my friends in Spain will advise me to take. And if you will not extend to me so small a favor, your pleasure then be fulfilled, and to God I commit my cause!"

"And with that she rose up, making a low courtesy to the King, and so departed. She took her way straight out of the house, leaning (as she was wont always to do) upon the arm of her general receiver. And the King being told of her departure, commanded the crier to call her again, who called her by the name of 'Catherine, Queen of England, come into the court,' etc. With that quoth Master Griffith, 'Madam, ye be called again.' 'On, on,' quoth she, 'it maketh no matter, for it is no fair court for me, therefore I will not tarry. Go on your way.' And thus she departed out of that court, without any farther answer at that time, or at any other, nor would ever appear at any other court after."¹⁹

THE EXECUTION OF THE KING'S OLD FRIEND SIR THOMAS MORE

Most of the powerful men in England promptly gave their approval to the King's divorce and to his becoming the head of the Church in England. But Sir Thomas More, the King's old companion, did not believe that either of these things was right, and refused to take the oath required of him by the King's obedient Parliament. He was therefore imprisoned in the Tower of London and afterwards condemned to death by the King's judges. Below is given the description of the death of More, written by his son-in-law, Roper.

"Now after his trial departed he to the Tower again, led by

Sir William Kingston, a tall, strong and comely knight, constable of the Tower, and his very dear friend. Who when he had brought him from Westminster to the Old Swan towards the Tower, there with a heavy heart, the tears running down his cheeks, bade him farewell. Sir Thomas More, seeing him so sorrowful, comforted him with as good words as he could, saying, 'Good Mr. Kingston, trouble not yourself, but be of good cheer. For I will pray for you, and my good lady your wife, that we may meet together in heaven, where we shall be merry for ever and ever.' Soon after, Sir William Kingston, talking with me of Sir Thomas More, said 'In faith, Mr. Roper, I was ashamed of myself, that at my departing from your father, I found my heart so feeble that he had to comfort me, who should rather have comforted him.'

"When Sir Thomas More came from Westminster to the Tower again, his daughter, my wife, desirous to see her father, whom she thought she should never see in this world again, also to have his final blessing, tarried about the Tower wharf, where she knew he should pass by. As soon as she saw him, she hastening towards and pressing in amongst the throng and the company of the guard, that with halberds and bills were round about him, hastily ran to him, and there openly in the sight of all, embraced him and took him about the neck and kissed him. He, well liking her most daughterly love and affection towards him, gave her his fatherly blessing, and many goodly words of comfort besides. After she was departed, not satisfied with the former sight of her dear father, she ran to him as before, took him about the neck, and divers times most lovingly kissed him, and at last with a full heavy heart was fain to depart from him. The sight of this made many of them that were present for very sorrow to mourn and weep.

"So remained Sir Thomas More in the Tower more than a seven-night after his judgment. The day before he died he sent his shirt of hair, not willing to have it seen, to my wife, his dearly beloved daughter, and a letter written with a coal. 'I



Painting by W. F. Yeames

SIR THOMAS MORE ON HIS WAY TO THE TOWER OF LONDON

This meeting took place on the Tower wharf. See the illustration on page 198. The White Tower is shown to the right.

Keystone View Co.

cumber you much, good Margaret, but I would be sorry if it should be any longer than tomorrow. For tomorrow is St. Thomas' Eve, and I long to go to God. And I never liked your manners better than when you kissed me last. For I like when daughterly love and dear charity hath no time to look to worldly courtesy.'

"And so upon the next morrow early, came to him Sir Thomas Pope, his very good friend, on message from the King and his council, that he should before nine of the clock in the same morning suffer death; and that, therefore, he should forthwith prepare himself. 'Mr. Pope,' saith he, 'for your good tidings I most heartily thank you. I have been always bounden much to the King's Highness for the benefits and honors which he hath from time to time most bountifully heaped upon me. I will not fail most earnestly to pray for his Grace both here and also in another world. I beseech you, good Mr. Pope, to request his Highness that my daughter Margaret may be present at my burial.' 'The King is well contented already,' quoth Mr. Pope, 'that your wife, children and other friends shall have free liberty to be present thereat.' 'O how much behoden,' then said Sir Thomas More, 'am I to his Grace.' Mr. Pope, taking his leave of him, could not refrain from weeping, which Sir Thomas More perceiving, comforted him in this wise: 'Quiet yourself, good Mr. Pope, and be not discomfited. For I trust that we shall in heaven see each other merrily, where we shall be sure to live and love together in joyful bliss eternally.'

"Upon his departure Sir Thomas More, like one invited to a solemn feast, changed himself into his best clothes. Which Mr. Lieutenant espying, advised him to put them off, saying that he that should have them [the executioner] was but a worthless fellow. 'What, Mr. Lieutenant,' quoth he, 'shall I account him a worthless fellow that will do me this day so great a benefit? Nay, I assure you, were they cloth of gold I would account them well bestowed on him.' And although at length, through Mr. Lieutenant's persuasions, he altered his clothing, yet did he of the

little money that was left him, send one angel of gold to his executioner.

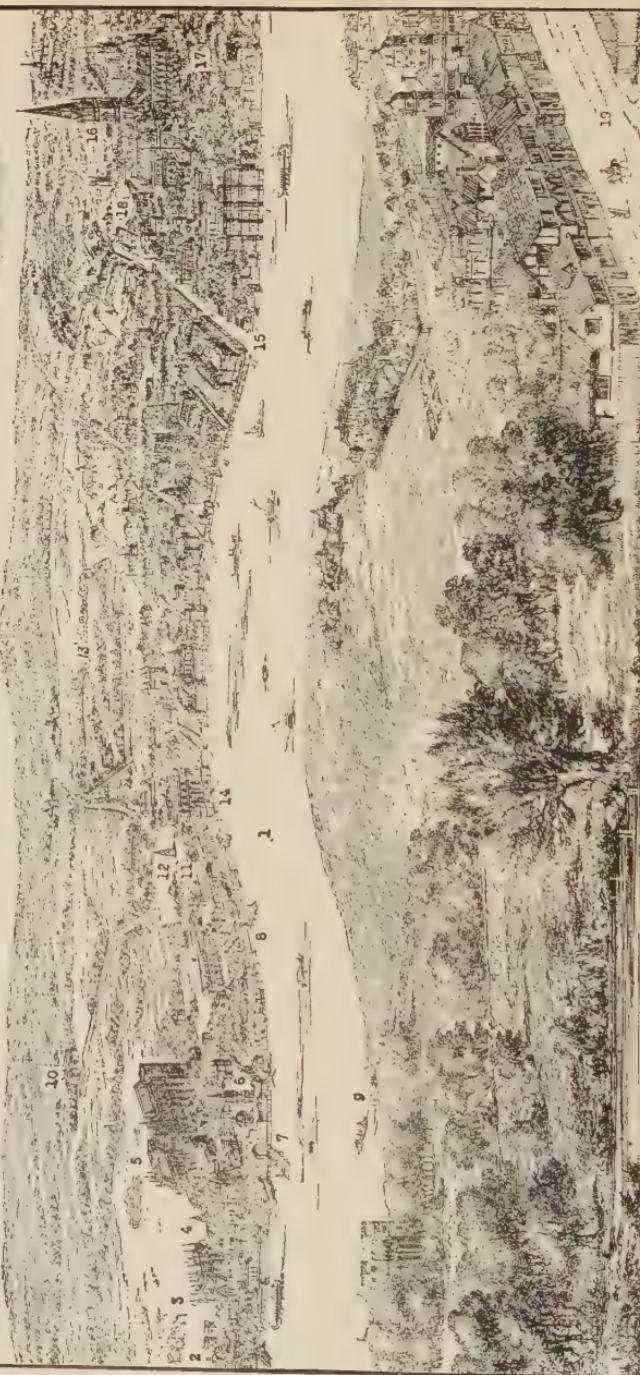
“And so he was brought by Mr. Lieutenant out of the Tower, and from thence led towards the place of execution, where going up the scaffold, which was so weak that it was ready to fall, he said merrily to Mr. Lieutenant, ‘I pray you, Mr. Lieutenant, see me safe up, and for my coming down let me shift for myself.’ Then he desired all of the people thereabouts to pray for him, and to bear witness with him that he should then suffer death in and for the faith of the Holy Catholic Church. Which done he kneeled down, and after his prayers he turned to the executioner, and with a cheerful countenance spake unto him: ‘Pluck up thy spirits, man, and be not afraid to do thine office. My neck is very short; take heed, therefore, thou strike not awry, for saving thine honesty [thy good name].’

“So passed Sir Thomas More out of the world to God upon the very same day which he most desired. Soon after his death the news thereof came to the Emperor Charles [of Germany]. Whereupon he sent for Sir Thomas Elliott, our English ambassador, and said unto him, ‘My Lord Ambassador, we understand that the King, your master, hath put his faithful servant and wise counsellor, Sir Thomas More, to death.’ Sir Thomas Elliott answered that he understood nothing thereof. ‘Well,’ said the Emperor, ‘it is very true, and this will we say, that if we had been master of such a servant we would rather have lost the best city of our dominions.’ ”¹⁸

In one place this story tells that Sir Thomas More was taken from Westminster to the Tower of London. You will see from the three pages following that this means from one end to the other of the London of that time. London extended east and west along the Thames River. Westminster was the western part—shown in the first picture—beyond the walls of the ancient city. It contained the residence of the king, Westminster Abbey, the houses in which parliament met, and many of the homes of

the great nobles and wealthy men. The second picture shows the older part of the city, contained largely within the walls. These walls were no longer of much use and had somewhat fallen into decay. The famous London Bridge is also shown in this picture, connecting London with the town of Southwark. In the third picture, at the end of the city wall, you will find the Tower of London. It occupies twelve acres, and within its walls you will find a spot marked as the place of execution.

The Tower is made up of large groups of connected buildings and towers, all contained within its own walls, about which there once had been a moat or ditch, now no longer filled with water. The great White Tower in the center is the oldest building, and was constructed over 800 years ago by the conqueror of England, William of Normandy, to protect himself from attack by sea and to keep the city in order. The other buildings were added, at one time or another, by later kings. For a long time the Tower was at once a royal residence, a fortress and a prison. By the time of Henry VIII other residences were more commonly used by the royal family and the Tower had become an arsenal and prison. For many years it contained a menagerie, one of the gates being called the Lion's Gate. The Tower is now a sort of museum, in which are shown to tourists and visitors the old-fashioned armor, weapons and instruments of torture employed in English history. Many great persons were imprisoned in the Tower at one time or another, and many died there. We shall come upon the Tower of London in some of our later stories.



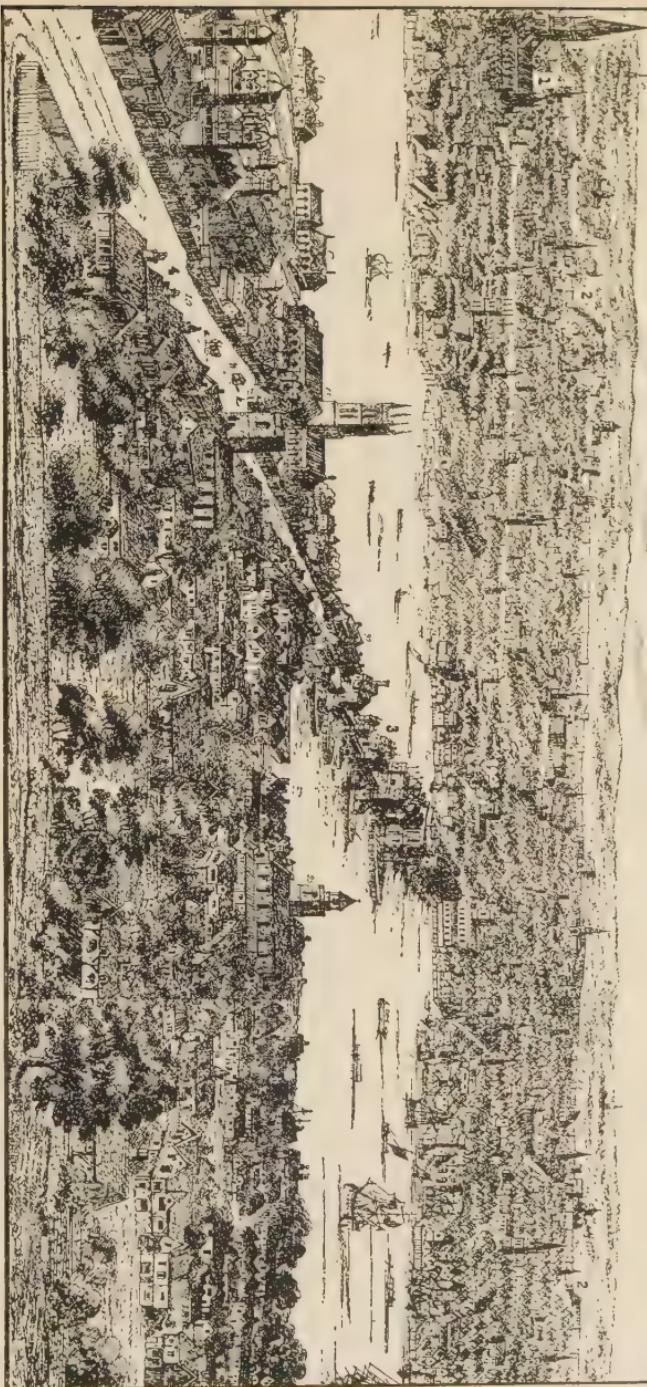
By Anthony Van den Wyngaerde

From Bryant's London in the Time of the Tudors

LONDON IN THE TIME OF HENRY VIII (WESTERN PART)
1—River Thames. 2—Palace of Westminster (an old royal residence, then in use). 3—St. Stephen's Chapel (meeting place of House of Commons; present Houses of Parliament begun here in 1840). 4—Westminster Hall (now a part of Houses of Parliament). 5—Westminster Abbey (best known church in British Empire; place of crowning of kings; burial place of royalty and distinguished persons). 6—Old Palace Yard (where Sir Walter Raleigh was beheaded). 7—King's Stair. 8—Whitehall (principal residence of Henry VIII, who died there; later burnt; the Hall now a museum). 9—Horse Ferry. 10—St. James (later a royal residence). 11—Scotland Yard. 12—Charing Cross. 13—Convent Garden. 14—St. Mary's Hospital. 15—Fleet Ditch. 16—Old St. Paul's Cathedral. 17—St. Paul's Cross. 18—Walls of London. 19—High Street, Southwark.

By Anthony Van den Wyngaerde

From Besant's London in the Time of the Tudors



LONDON IN THE TIME OF HENRY VIII (CENTRAL PART)

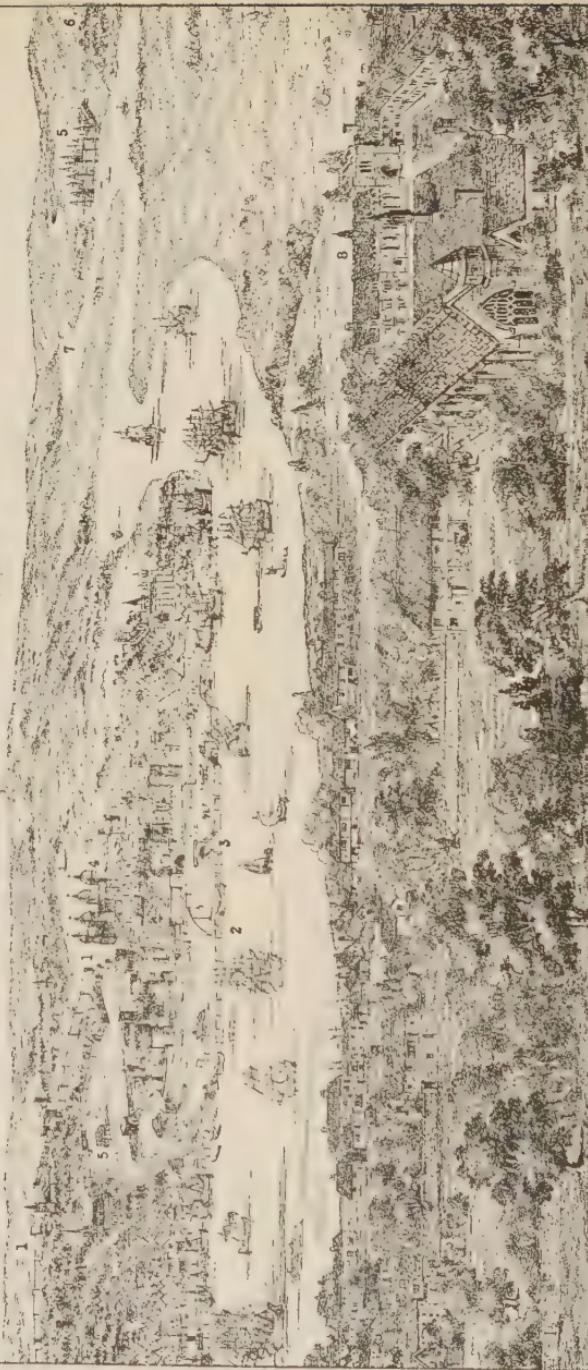
1—Old St. Paul's Cathedral (referred to in our story of Edward VI; struck by lightning and partly burned in 1561; nearly destroyed in Great Fire of London; present St. Paul's built after 1675, finished in 1710, contains tombs of many great persons). 2—Walls of London (these walls protected London during the Middle Ages; of little value in time of Henry VIII). 3—Old London Bridge (occupied by houses and shops with a chapel in the middle; connecting with Southwark; replaced by existing bridge near the old position; Thames now crossed by many bridges). 4—High Street, Southwark (main entrance to the city from south at that time).

From Besant's London in the Time of the Tudors

LONDON IN THE TIME OF HENRY VIII (EASTERN PART)

1—Walls of London. 2—Tower of London. 3—Traitor's Gate (an entrance for prisoners of high rank). 4—The White Tower. 5—(Left side) place of execution. 5—(Right side) Palace at Greenwich (birthplace of Henry VIII and one of his residences; Mary Tudor, Elizabeth and Edward VI died there; also a residence for James I, Charles I, Cromwell, and Charles II; the location of the Royal Naval Observatory and a museum; marks the zero meridian of longitude). 6—Village of Greenwich. 7—Village of Bermonsey. 8—A good view of the sea.

By Anthony Van den Wyngaerde



HOW THE MONASTERIES WERE CLOSED: TOLD BY A MAN
WHOSE FATHER SAW THESE THINGS HAPPEN

“As soon as the visitors [the King’s commissioners] were entered within the gates, they called the abbot and other officers of the house, and caused them to deliver up to them all their keys, and made a list of all their goods both within doors and without. All such beasts, horses, sheep, and such cattle as were abroad in pasture or grange places, the visitors caused to be brought into their presence; and when they had done so, turned the abbot with all his convent and household forth out of the doors.

“Which thing was not a little grief to the convent, and to all the servants of the house departing one from another. It would have made a heart of flint to have melted and wept to have seen the sudden breaking up and plundering of these houses and their sorrowful departing. And every person had everything good cheap, except the poor monks, friars and nuns, that had no money to bestow on anything.

“Such persons as afterwards bought the corn and hay or such like, found all the doors either open, the locks and shackles plucked away, or the door itself taken away. They went in and took what they found—filched it away. Some took the service books that lay in the church and laid them upon their waine coppes [wagon tops] to patch them. Some took the windows of the hayloft and hid them in their hay; and likewise they did of many other things. Some that bought none pulled forth the iron hooks out of the walls when the yeomen and gentlemen of the country had bought the timber of the church. For the church was the first thing that was put to the spoil; and then the abbot’s lodging and all the buildings thereabout within the abbey walls.

“It would have pitied any heart to see what tearing up of lead there was and plucking up of boards and throwing down of the spars, when the lead was torn off and cast down into the church, and the tombs in the church all brokeu, and all things of Christ either spoiled, carried away or defaced to the uttermost. The

persons that cast the lead into fodders plucked up all the seats in the choir wherein the monks sat when they said service, and burned them and melted the lead therewith, although there was wood plenty within an arrow shot of them.”²⁰

EDWARD VI AND THE PROTESTANTS

When Henry VIII died, after ruling for thirty-eight years, his ten-year-old son Edward became king. Edward was a highly intelligent boy of feeble health who was to reign only six years. He had been brought up among Protestants. The great men who surrounded him also were Protestants. Some of them were very selfish men who used the cause of religion for their own benefit. They proceeded to make changes in the Church that King Henry never would have permitted. Protestantism therefore became more firmly established in England. It was at this time that the Book of Common Prayer of the English Church was first introduced, as well as the Communion in place of the Mass. Priests were permitted to marry. We catch a glimpse of the changes that were taking place from the following quotation from the chronicle of a friar who detested them. The images were the sacred figures in the churches which the Protestants regarded as idolatrous and wicked.

“In September began the King’s visitation at St. Paul’s Church and all images were pulled down, and the 9th day of the same month the said visitation was at St. Bride’s and after that in divers other parish churches. And so all images were pulled down throughout all England at that time, and all churches new white-limed, with the commandments written on the walls. The 17th day of November at night was pulled down the cross in St. Paul’s, with all the images in the church. Two of the men that labored at it were slain and divers others sore hurt. Also at that same time were pulled down throughout all the King’s dominions in every church, all crosses with all images.

“Also at this same time was much speaking against the sacrament of the altar. Some called it ‘Jack in the Box,’ with divers

other shameful names; and then was made a proclamation against it, and so continued. At Easter following there began the Communion, and at this time was much praying against the Mass.



From the portrait at Petworth

EDWARD VI THE BOY KING

After Easter began the service in English and also in divers other parish churches. Also at this time was Barking Chapel at the Tower Hill pulled down, and also Strand Church to make the protector Duke of Somerset's place larger. This year were all the chantries put down [certain small religious houses].

"On St. Barnabas Day no holiday was kept through all London at the command of the mayor, and at night the altar in St. Paul's was pulled down, and a week after the Communion was administered. The 14th day of June was Saturday, and before evening a man was slain in St. Paul's Church; also this year Corpus Christi was not kept holy day. At the Assumption of our Lady was such division throughout all London that some kept holy day and some none. Almighty God help it when his will is! The same division was at the feast of the Nativity of our Lady."²¹

RELIGION IN ENGLAND UNDER QUEENS MARY AND ELIZABETH

The changes made in the Church under Edward were too serious to please the great majority of the people of England. They liked the old Catholic forms and ceremonies with which they were familiar. Moreover, they greatly resented the selfish behavior of the great Protestant landlords behind the young king. So they looked to Mary, who followed Edward on the throne, to put a stop to extreme measures and to curb the selfishness of the great lords.

But Mary went too far. She was the daughter of Henry's divorced queen, and remembered with bitterness the treatment received by her mother. Like her mother she was a devoted Catholic and a great friend of Catholic Spain, her mother's land. She wished above all things to restore the Catholic Church in England and to renew the Pope's authority there. Her persecution of the Protestants was so cruel as to earn for her the name of Bloody Mary, although in many ways she was a kind and well-meaning woman. Her marriage with Philip II, king of Spain, also gave great offense to the people of England. After five years she was succeeded by Elizabeth, who now entered upon her long and illustrious reign.

Elizabeth hesitated about religion because she was cautious and wished to please her people. She finally decided to return

to the half-way policy of her father. This, as you remember, was a separate Church of England, with the monarch at its head. The bishops and archbishops of the older church remained. But the Protestant Prayer Book was to be used, and Communion instead of the Mass. So you see that although the Church of



Portrait by Mor

Victor Animatograph Co.

MARY TUDOR, QUEEN OF ENGLAND FOR FIVE YEARS

England was Protestant in many ways, it still resembled the older Catholic Church.

As her reign drew on Elizabeth came in conflict with the Catholic king of Spain. The two nations were rivals for the commerce of the seas, as well as opponents in religion. Plots were formed about Mary Queen of Scots with a view to placing her



Painting by Schrader

Gramstorff Bros.

**ELIZABETH HESITATES TO SIGN THE DEATH WARRANT OF
MARY QUEEN OF SCOTS**

Having lost the good-will of her Scotch subjects, Mary Stuart took refuge with Elizabeth, by whom she was held a prisoner for many years. Because Mary was her cousin and a queen, and because she did not wish to take the responsibility of her execution, Elizabeth hesitated to sign the death warrant.

upon the throne, for Mary was a Catholic. Because she was suspected of taking part in these plots, Elizabeth had Mary beheaded. The king of Spain seems to have had a hand in these plots against Elizabeth. With the coming of the Spanish Armada against England the patriotism of all Englishmen was aroused, and their hatred of Spain drove them still more towards Protestantism. By the close of Elizabeth's reign the majority of the English people were probably Protestant, whereas at its beginning they were Catholic.

So England had become Protestant. Thereafter the religious struggle in England was no longer so much between Catholics and Protestants as it was between those who were satisfied with the Church of England, who were the majority, and a smaller group of those who felt that the reform of the English Church had not gone far enough and wished a still more Protestant type of religion. These were the Puritans of several kinds: Nonconformists, Presbyterians and Separatists.

QUESTIONS

1. To what Church did England belong when Henry VIII became king?
2. How did Henry VIII feel about the New Learning?
3. What brought on the quarrel between Henry and the Pope?
4. What was the outcome of this quarrel?
5. Who was Sir Thomas More and why did he lose his life?
6. When Henry died how much had the Church been changed?
7. What happened to the Church while the boy Edward VI was king? Why were the English people dissatisfied with the changes under Edward?
8. Who was Mary Tudor and what did she try to do while she was queen? Was she successful? Explain.
9. What did Elizabeth decide to do when she became queen? Was she successful? Explain.
10. When did most of the people of England become Protestant? What helped to bring this about?
11. Who was Mary Queen of Scots and why was she beheaded?



Painting by Robert Herdman

W. F. Mansell

MARY QUEEN OF SCOTS: THE END

The Queen met her death with great courage and dignity.

TROUBLES IN FRANCE

The king of France who sent Verrazano in search of a route to the Indies towards the northwest was Francis I. His son, Henry II, after doing many things to build up his kingdom, died in a strange manner. He was very fond of jousting, and one day in a tournament offered to break three lances upon his opponents, after the fashion of the times. He was successful in two of his trials, but in the third the broken stump of the lance of his opponent lifted the visor of his helmet and a splinter pierced his brain. He died and left his Italian queen, Catherine de Medici, and their four sons. Three of these sons became king, one after another. We shall tell a short story about each of these sons and how they and the Queen Mother handled the troubles of the kingdom.

Protestant ideas came into France from Germany and spread rapidly among the people. Those who accepted these new ideas were afterwards called Huguenots. They were not confined to the middle and lower classes. Some of the nobles favored the new ideas, among them relatives of the royal family. Of these relatives of the king who favored the Protestant ideas, was so important a person as the Queen of Navarre, whose son, Henry, was the nearest heir to the French throne if by chance the four sons of the Queen Mother should die without leaving children to succeed them. The family of the Queen of Navarre, together with their friends, we shall call the Bourbon party, because this was the name of the family.

The first of the sons to become king was Francis II. He was a delicate boy of fifteen. He had a pale puffy face, his health was poor, and he was stubborn and unhappy. There is little more to tell about him—for he was merely a figure-head and not a real king—except that he was very fond of his girl wife, Mary Stuart, who, after his early death, became Mary Queen of Scots, and later died on the scaffold in England, as we already know.

The real rulers of France were two brothers belonging to the

noble family of Guise. These men were foreigners who had come to France and rapidly risen to power under the boy king's father and grandfather. They were uncles of Mary Stuart, the young queen, who did quite what her uncles wished her to do about managing her youthful husband. The Queen Mother was afraid of these powerful uncles, and hated them because they had robbed her of her influence with her son, for she really wished to rule France herself by controlling her son's actions. The members of the Bourbon party were also much displeased to see these uncles of the Queen in power, for as relatives of the King they felt they had a much better right to rule than did these foreigners. And since the powerful Guises were Catholics, while the Bourbons leaned towards Protestantism, you will see that the stage was now set for a bitter quarrel and a division of the kingdom between these two powerful parties.

As the Huguenots in the different parts of France grew bolder many riots and outbreaks occurred which the Bourbons were accused of encouraging. The Guises were laying their plans to crush the Huguenots and to punish their Bourbon leaders when the whole situation was upset by the sudden death of the boy king. He had reigned only a year and five months.

The Queen Mother's second son now came to the throne as Charles IX. He was a child of ten years, and of course someone had to be his guardian. This was the Queen Mother's chance. She had herself made Regent, which means the real ruler of the kingdom until the boy should become fourteen, when he would be of age and become king in his own right. The Guises therefore lost their power, but there was nothing they could do about it for they had no lawful right to rule.

Catherine, the Queen Mother, made her position stronger by making friends with the Bourbons, and inviting them to a share in the government of France. She had decided upon a policy of friendliness to both the quarreling families, and to both Catholics and Protestants. It was her hope that the troubles of the land could be smoothed out, and that her own power and the future

of her young son could best be helped by gentleness. She was fond of gaiety and pleasure, and loved to see the nobles of the land enjoying themselves in the splendid entertainments of her Court and forgetting their quarrels. In all this she was aided



From a painting

Victor Animatograph Co.

MARY STUART'S FAREWELL TO FRANCE

At the death of her husband, Francis II, Mary Stuart, then 18 years of age, sailed for Scotland to become queen. She had lived in France about 12 years.

by her Chancellor, a man with a fine mind and a friend to the idea of religious toleration. "Let us do away," he said, "with these devilish terms Lutherns, Huguenots and Papists, the names of parties and factions; let us cling to the title of Christians." Unfortunately the people of France had yet to learn through bloodshed and horrors the advantages of this noble idea.

So the Protestants were released from prison, those who had been banished from the kingdom were invited to return, and those who had been sent to the galleys were recalled. They were supposed to become Catholics if they did so, but nobody paid any attention to this part of the agreement. To be a Huguenot was no longer a disgrace and thousands joined the new religion. These marks of favor towards the Huguenots and their old enemies, the Bourbons, naturally enraged the Guises and their friends. It looked to them as if the Regent's plan could only mean that the whole country was to be thrown into the hands of the Protestants. They opposed the plan heartily and called upon others for assistance. The king of Spain and other powerful persons in Europe gave them support. Catherine calmed them all as well as she could and promised them that no harm should come to the country or to the Catholic religion.

And now some of the Huguenots hurt their own cause by becoming intolerant themselves. Forgetting their own persecution and their pleas for a right to follow their own religion, they punished and banished and destroyed wherever they had the power. Disorders and riots broke out all over the kingdom, and the Queen and her Chancellor were perplexed and irritated, but they held to their policy of gentleness. They demanded that the Huguenots give up the churches they had taken and refrain from disorder. In return for this they were offered the right to hold services outside the towns in the open air. This arrangement pleased the Huguenots, for at last they had the legal right to practice their religion.

Things went from bad to worse, until the first civil war broke out between the two parties and their followers. The Queen Mother felt compelled to send the royal army, led by the Duke of Guise, against the Huguenot army. Queen Elizabeth of England helped the Huguenots. Frenchmen fought against Frenchmen, much to the distress of many of them. The Huguenot army was defeated, but the Duke of Guise was afterward killed by an assassin. He was mourned all through Catholic

France, for he was a great general and a distinguished leader. Bitterness was thus added to the quarrel, for the family of Guise did not fail to blame the Huguenots for the killing of their chief.

The Queen Mother patched up a peace between the two factions but it settled nothing. Both sides began to lay plans for the next stage in the conflict. The young king now took the throne but urged his mother to continue to rule. Once more the Queen Mother made a desperate effort to draw the attention of the parties from their quarrels. She and the King journeyed all over France, giving and receiving festivities and entertainments. They went some distance into Spain where they met agents from the king of Spain, who urged them to give up their policy of gentleness and crush the Protestant leaders. Catherine may have made some promises to do so but she did not keep them, for when she returned to France she continued to make friends with both sides. Nevertheless, this visit to Spain alarmed the Huguenots who feared the influence of the Spanish king. They decided upon a bold move, which was nothing less than a plan to kidnap the Queen Mother and the King and to remove them from the influence of their enemies. Both the Queen Mother and the King escaped but they never forgot this insult to their royal dignity. From that time the Queen Mother's friendliness for the Huguenot leaders weakened. She began to feel that they aimed at the capture of the royal power and the government of France, and not merely at the right to practice their religion. The idea began to spread that if a few of the great Huguenot leaders could be put out of the way the troubles of France would be settled. Two more civil wars were fought without bringing about a settlement, however, and the Queen Mother continued in her efforts to satisfy both parties.

And now to mend matters as completely as possible, the Queen Mother proposed the marriage of her daughter with the young Henry of Navarre, son of the queen of that little kingdom, who, as we have said, was a Bourbon relative of the royal family and a Huguenot. The marriage was arranged and the nobility of



Painting by Hoff

THE ARREST OF A HUGUENOT

Gramstorff Bros.

France, including hundreds of Huguenots, flocked to Paris to attend the marriage ceremonies. It was a dangerous situation. On the face of things the quarreling parties were at peace, but below the surface there was suspicion and fear and much threatening talk. Only a spark was needed to set the passions of men ablaze. The great Coligny, leader of the Huguenots, was shot in the arm as he was walking along a narrow street, and it was found that the shot had been fired from a house belonging to the Guises. At once the city was in an uproar. Meetings were held and angry discussions followed. Hot-headed men made threats of violence and rumors of all sorts ran through the city.

At the palace of the King on the following evening a council was held to determine how best to meet the situation. The Queen Mother was in terror, for she and her younger son were the very ones who had conspired with the Duke of Guise to kill Coligny, and she was now afraid of being found out. She had come to hate Coligny because her son had grown tired of being a mere puppet in her hands and wanted to be a real king. He had become friendly with the Huguenots and admired the old Admiral Coligny, who was growing to be the strongest person in the government. The Queen Mother, alarmed at the loss of her influence over her son, determined to be rid of the Admiral. She had failed, because the shot had only wounded him and he was recovering. And now if her part in this wicked affair should become known she would be ruined. There was but one thing to do. She must convince the King that the leaders of the Huguenots should at once be destroyed. She and her friends now urged the King to instruct the Duke of Guise to lead the royal guards about the city and search out and kill the Huguenot leaders. King Charles at first fiercely refused. For hours the Queen and her friends implored and tormented this weak young man, until in a frenzy of fury and desperation he exclaimed, "Well, then, kill them all, that not a single one may be left to reproach me."

Plans were forthwith made and a night of horror followed. It

is called the Massacre of St. Bartholomew's Day. Although Catherine had intended that only a few leaders should be killed, the situation was soon beyond control. We shall not try to describe the scenes of this awful night. It was one of those moments in history when civilized men forgot their reason and humanity and behaved like beasts. When all was over hundreds of Frenchmen, including the great Coligny, had been killed by their countrymen and the city was a scene of desolation. Europe was shocked. Very few Frenchmen were pleased. The young King, never very strong, sickened and died.

The third son of the Queen now became king as Henry III. This young man was extremely thin, with a long face and a mocking mouth, and, although amiable and graceful in his manners, he was a scoffer and a fop. His tastes were silly and unmanly. He hated exercise and loved fine clothes, jewels and perfume. With a group of companions of his own kind, upon whom he wasted money and honors, he indulged in all sorts of follies and absurd amusements. He liked especially to dress himself in women's costumes and to go about Paris at night, jostling the people and playing a thousand silly pranks. The people despised him. Such was the king that had come to the throne to govern a land vexed with troubles and torn with strife.

Of course with such a king the troubles of the kingdom were neither wisely nor firmly handled. Both parties created disorders in the provinces, and the Huguenot party laid plans for an uprising. It was now led by the young Henry of Navarre and so important a person as the King's younger brother, an unruly young man who was jealous of the King, whom he regarded as his mother's pet. Catherine was alarmed at the thought of war, and made a very friendly agreement with the Huguenots, who were allowed full liberty of worship everywhere, with other privileges. The Catholics were amazed and formed a league to oppose the policy of the King and the Queen Mother.

It soon seemed as if this League would be more powerful than the King, so the King decided to place himself at its head and to

put down the Huguenots. This aroused Henry of Navarre who now made war against the King. The Huguenot army was small, poor and ragged, but Henry led it so gallantly that he won the first real victory for the Huguenots since the beginning of the civil wars in France. This victory made a profound impression throughout the country. Everybody realized that the young Huguenot leader was a brilliant soldier and that he must be reckoned with. The Huguenots were jubilant.

The League was quite disturbed over this victory and blamed the King for his feeble handling of the royal armies. Most of the people agreed with the League and made a hero of its leader, the young Duke of Guise. The King began to fear that the League intended to remove him and put the Duke of Guise on the throne. He protected himself with a strong bodyguard. A quarrel broke out between the King and Guise, who was forbidden to enter the city of Paris. But the Duke defied the King and entered the city. He even presented himself at the Court, where the King received him with icy coldness. The quarrel grew and the King decided that the Duke must die. Coolly he laid his plans. Early one morning he called together his Council, to which the Duke belonged. When the Duke arrived he had him called for a private talk in a little room before the door of which he had placed eight of his guards. Guise left the Council Room and entered the room of the guards, whom he courteously saluted. As he stood idly at the door of the King's inner room, waiting to be admitted, the guards brutally murdered him.

Hearing the scuffle the King entered the room and remarked that the work had been well done. He then walked to the apartments of the Queen Mother to give her the news. "What have you done?" she exclaimed. "Now I alone am king," said her son. But he was wrong, for his stupid and brutal act horrified all France and lost him what little respect his subjects still had for him.

To protect himself from the powerful League the King was now compelled to join forces with the Huguenot leader, Henry

Painting by Comte

THE MEETING OF HENRY VII AND HIS FATHER THE DUKE OF GLoucester

Gramstorff Bros.



of Navarre. Navarre made a noble speech to the country in which he said, "Misery and confusion everywhere, such are the fruits of war. I ask for peace in the name of the King. I ask it for every Frenchman—for France itself!"

Under so distinguished a leader as Henry of Navarre the conflict took on a different look. All those opposed to the League hastened to join him. A great war between the two parties now took place. Help came to the Huguenots from other countries. The people of France began to hesitate, and to wonder which party was in the right after all. Suddenly the King was set upon by a fanatic and mortally wounded. As he was dying he embraced Henry of Navarre and said, "I am dying happy in the knowledge that you are by my side. I command all the royal officers to recognize you as king after me." But he added, "You will have many troubles unless you change your religion. I beseech you to do this." Catherine, the Queen Mother, had recently died, as had her remaining son. Henry of Navarre, therefore, was now heir to the throne of France. He was a Protestant, while the greater part of France was Catholic. What was he to do?

Perhaps the new king would have been immediately recognized if he had been willing to change his religion, but this he felt he could not do without the loss of his self-respect and the respect of his Huguenot followers. He agreed to protect the Catholic religion and to be instructed in religion by a council of churchmen. But this satisfied neither of the extreme parties, but only those who wished for peace above everything. The people of France were uncertain and confused. Henry realized that he must conquer his kingdom step by step. Many battles followed between him and the League. Henry fought gallantly and successfully. Rushing into the fighting like an ordinary soldier he would exclaim, "Follow my white plume. You will always find it on the road to honor and victory!" Slowly his gallant behavior won the secret admiration of many of his opponents. The people of France he treated with great gentleness and kindly humor.



Painting by Gerard

THE TRIUMPHAL ENTRY OF HENRY IV INTO PARIS

The King, followed by his officers, is being welcomed by the governor of Paris and the magistrates of the city. The famous white plume is being borne by the King's Prime Minister, who rides a white horse on the King's left. Behind is the city gate, and to the right are the new buildings of the Louvre, the royal residence.

Gramontoff Bros

They began to feel that this was a man they could love and honor. If only he were a Catholic, what an excellent king he would make?

Henry laid siege to Paris but was unable to take it, partly because of his unwillingness to starve the population. He bided his time and as chance offered captured other cities here and there. At last he decided to become a Catholic and so settle the difficulties of the kingdom. In an ancient cathedral of one of the towns of France he was crowned king. The people of the land were deeply impressed. And now he was ready for his triumphal entry into Paris. His armies approached the city and the gates were opened by his friends. The King entered at the head of his troops, wearing his breastplate and the helmet adorned with the famous white plume. Eager and curious crowds rushed to catch a glimpse of him and were quickly won over by his kindly manners.

The new king had troubles in abundance, for after thirty years of civil war the country was sadly in need of rest and repair. But the King proceeded to settle them in his broad-minded, firm and generous way. The Protestants were protected by their old leader and permitted to practice their religion everywhere except in Paris and the greater towns. The business of the kingdom was set in order and the country improved. After many years of hard work for France, Henry IV was killed by a maniac, to the profound distress of the nation.

QUESTIONS

1. Who ruled France during the period of the story?
2. Who was Catherine de Medici and what was her plan for the settlement of the religious troubles? Did the plan succeed? Explain.
3. What was the attitude of the Queen Mother toward her three sons who became king?
4. What was the plan of Henry IV for settling the religious troubles? Was it successful? Explain.
5. What were the Protestants in France called?



From an old print

THE OLD CITY OF ANTWERP IN THE NETHERLANDS

Situated on the right bank of the river Scheldt, about 60 miles from the sea. Antwerp was a great port of trade between the Continent and England. Here William of Orange quieted the tumult. Notice the traffic on the river, the forts, walls and moats, the great cathedral. Antwerp is now the principal sea-trading city of Belgium.

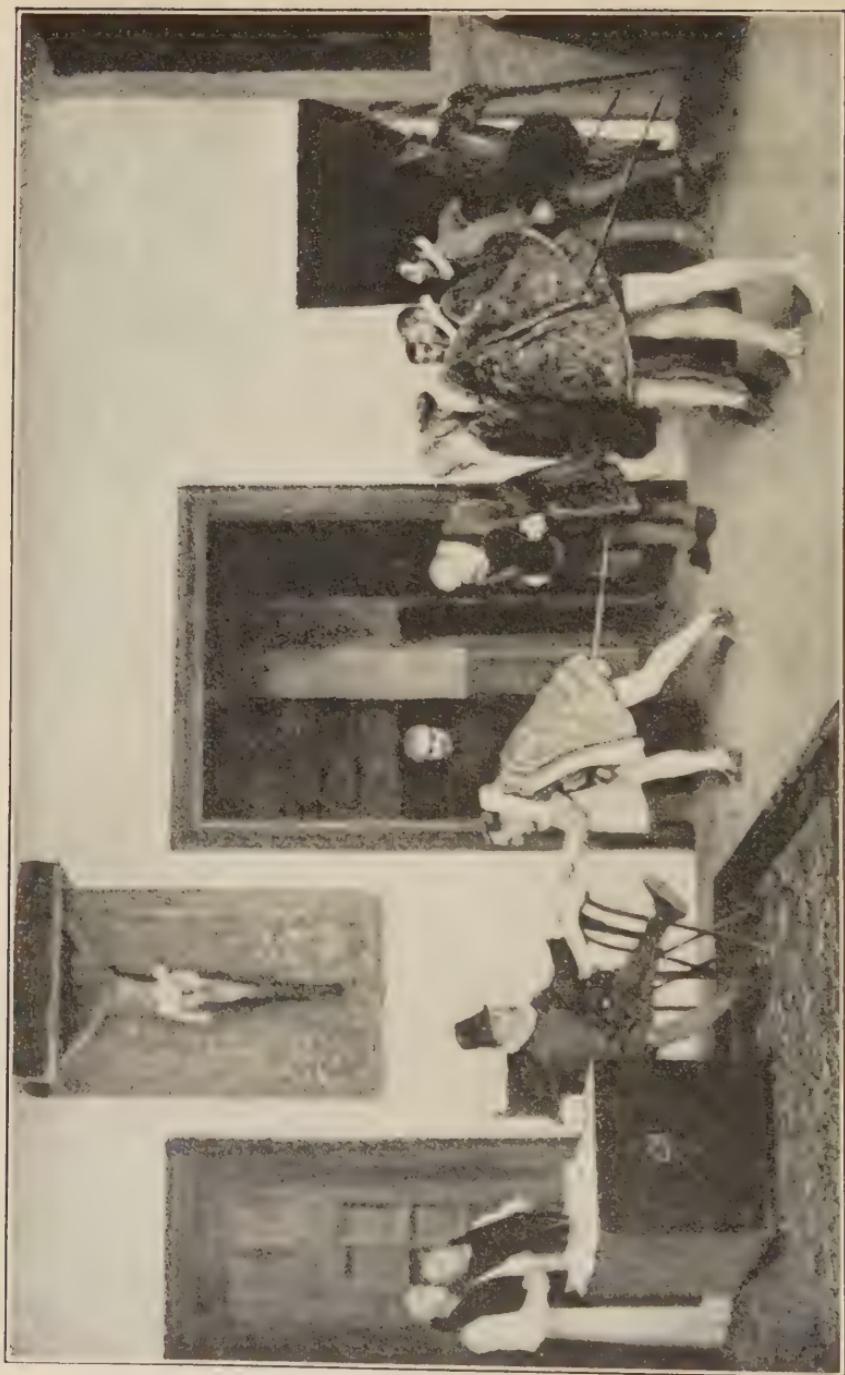
THE BEGINNINGS OF THE DUTCH NATION (HOLLAND)

The next story has to do with a nation of which no mention has so far been made, because it was not yet formed. It is a nation that afterwards became powerful and had a share in the settlement of the American colonies. This is the Dutch nation which grew out of the Netherlands, as Belgium did later.

In the early sixteenth century (1500-1600) the Netherlands or Lowlands were a group of states that had never been welded into one nation. They were all ruled by some foreign king, to be sure, but each had had a somewhat different history, and the people of each thought of themselves as somewhat distinct from their neighbors. Each state had its own small parliament, although each also sent its representatives to the States-General, or common parliament, which, however, had little power. The count or duke or prince that once had ruled each of these states no longer did so, except as the agent of the foreign king.

The most powerful parts of these states were the great cities, like Antwerp, Amsterdam, Ghent, Brussels and Leyden. These cities had grown up during the Middle Ages from the trade that flowed up and down, between the North and South of Europe, on the large rivers that empty into the sea in the Netherlands. With their wealth these cities had bought from their lords many privileges and rights of self-government. When necessary they had fought for these rights with their armies. The influential people in these cities were the wealthy merchants and leaders of the guilds of skillful craftsmen and artisans who manufactured many excellent and beautiful things that were sold throughout Europe.

Outside the cities, on broad meadows largely saved from the sea by dykes and lined with canals, were sturdy farmers, whose fine cattle and choice dairy products were famed throughout Europe. Altogether there was no people in Europe more well-to-do or more intelligent than those of the Netherlands. They



Painting by Arcos THE NOBLES OF THE NETHERLANDS APPEALING TO THE SPANISH KING, PHILIP II

were not only noted for their trading, manufacturing and farming; they cultivated music and the fine arts, printed and read books, and set up schools maintained by public taxes. When Protestant ideas were being spread throughout Europe they eagerly listened to the new preachers and gladly read their books. Nowhere was the translated Bible read so much as in the Netherlands.

It had come about that the Netherlands were a part of the Empire of the Spanish king, Philip II. Now the King and the people of Spain were devoted Catholics. Their long struggle to expel the Moors from the Spanish peninsula had perhaps strengthened their zeal for the Church above that of any other nation. Therefore when so many of the people of the Netherlands became Protestants King Philip was horrified and undertook to bring them back to the Catholic faith.

The princes and nobles of the states of the Netherlands were divided, some being Catholic, some Protestant. But whether Catholic or Protestant, they resented the changes made in their government and the cruel persecution of their countrymen by a king who was an outsider. And they resented quite as much the heavy taxes the King laid upon them for his wars in other parts of Europe. At last they rebelled under the leadership of three of their great men, Counts Egmont and Horn, and William, Prince of Orange. All three were Catholics to begin with, and all three remained loyal to the King until his conduct became unbearable. Counts Egmont and Horn remained Catholic to the end, and were beheaded by the King for failing to support his cruel measures. Prince William left the country in time to save his life, became a Protestant, and led the people of the Netherlands through a long struggle against the Spanish armies until he was assassinated by the King's order.

At one time it looked as if all the states of the Netherlands were to join in forming one new nation. But the people of the southern states were at last won back to the King. Later on in history they were to become modern Belgium. The seven north-

ern states were formed into "The United Provinces of the Netherlands" under the leadership of Prince William.

In the episodes which follow Prince William appears as the principal figure, as he ought. Like Washington he led his nation in war without thought of personal reward, and in the face of countless discouragements. He was one of the first men in Europe to see the wisdom and justice of religious toleration. Even while he was a Catholic he said, "I am a Catholic; but I



From original by Ooms in M. H. de Young Memorial Museum, S. F.
READING THE FORBIDDEN BIBLE

At first the reading of the translated Bible was strictly forbidden by kings and parliaments.

cannot approve the custom of kings to confine men's creed and religion within fixed limits." He was able to bring his people to agree with him in this, so that Holland became an example for other nations to follow, and a refuge for the persecuted people of Europe. Later on the Pilgrims who settled at Plymouth in New England first fled to Holland to be free to follow their religion.

TWO INCIDENTS ABOUT PRINCE WILLIAM FROM
AN OLD ACCOUNT

“The Prince was in Paris at a hotel, where the butler’s pantry looked upon a lane by low iron-barred windows, near which was a sideboard covered with beautiful silver. A rascal having spied the way to get hold of this, provided himself with long hooks, by means of which he drew the pieces one by one close to the iron grating, bent by force those which could not pass through the holes and thus scratched all that was most beautiful. This mischance greatly troubled those who had charge of the silver, but at last the thief was caught and was condemned to be hanged.

“The day of the execution arrived, and just as the wretch was being conducted to the gibbet, the good Prince returned from hunting with the King. He perceived that a man was being led to execution, and learned from a passer-by for what crime he was going to die. The man, not knowing the Prince, answered that it was for having stolen the silver vessels of the Prince of Orange. Instantly the Prince addressed himself to the King, begging him to grant him the life of the criminal. The King consented, and the Prince rode at full gallop towards the crowd assembled to witness the sad spectacle, stayed the execution until the arrival of the King, and saved the thief from the hands of the hangman. After admonishing him to lead a better life for the future, he gave him full liberty.”²²

Shortly after this incident a hunting party took place in the Vincennes woods. As the story has it, on the way home the French king and William of Orange were separated from the rest of the riders. This king was Henry II, husband of Catherine de Medici, and father of the three sons with whom our story of France had to do. The tournament in which Henry II received the lance thrust that killed him, occurred a few days later.

As the two men rode along under the trees, the King, supposing the Prince to be well acquainted with the plans of his master, Philip II of Spain, told him the details of a private agreement

between the two monarchs to crush the Protestants in their realms. Although the Prince was a Catholic, he was shocked to hear of the cruel plan for the persecution of his own people, and he resolved to return to the Netherlands at once to do what he could to help them. Perhaps it was because he kept his opinions to himself at the time of this meeting with Henry II that he was afterwards known as William the Silent.

HOW THE REBELS IN THE NETHERLANDS CAME TO BE CALLED "THE BEGGARS."

As the bitter persecution of the Protestants continued, the people of the Netherlands became more and more hostile to the king of Spain and his agents. Prince William and his friends among the nobles did what they could to show the King his error. While he and prudent men like Egmont and Horn were trying to discover a wise way to proceed, some of the more hot-headed of the younger nobles took matters into their own hands. They drew up a petition to the King's Regent or agent, his sister, asking that the persecution of Protestants be stopped. When the matter was debated before the Regent's council, one of the counsellors exclaimed in a rage, "Madam! Is it possible that you are afraid of these beggars? They should have a cudgel for an answer, which would drive them down the steps of the palace a great deal faster than they came up." That evening the young nobles held a splendid banquet to celebrate the league they had formed. Here is an old account of what happened, by one who disliked them.

"When they were at table the guests merrily emptied the great beakers of gold and gilded silver, full of good wine, without forgetting to drink to the health of the Prince of Orange and Count Egmont. After the wine had heated their brains, Brederode, who was one of the cleverest, made a sign to the guests to be quiet. This done he began to relate aloud the remarks that had been made about them, and the fine name of 'Beggars' that had been applied to them. 'So,' he continued, 'since we are

beggars there is good reason for us to carry wallets and drink out of wooden cups' [because beggars then did these things]; and at the same instant one of his pages brought him a wallet, which he put on, and then he took in both hands a great wooden bowl, full of wine, and having valiantly emptied it at one gulp, had it refilled and passed it to his neighbor, crying aloud, 'To the health of the Beggars! Long live the Beggars.' His neighbor put on the wallet and emptied the cup as Brederode had done, and as he drank all the company cried at the top of their voices, 'Long live the Beggars!'

"Each of the guests did the same in turn, each taking an oath to maintain their league to live and die for each other, with the most foolish and absurd ceremony I ever heard of. For the person who had the wallet, holding the wooden cup in his hand, threw some salt into the wine, repeating at the same time this couplet:

"'By the salt, by the bread, by the wallet too,

'The beggars will not change, no matter what they do.'

"At a late stage of the supper the Prince of Orange, Count Egmont and Count Horn dropped in and drank once to the company, who meanwhile made the words, 'Long live the King; health to the Beggars,' re-echo so loud that one could not have heard God thunder.

"What shall I say further? They felt themselves so much honored by the name 'beggars,' which ought to have made them blush with shame, that they straightway invented an additional device, 'Faithful to the King, to wearing a beggar's wallet.' This device was engraved on leaden and tin medals, which they wore on their necks instead of jeweled collars; and they called the said medal 'The Order of the Beggars.' "²²

THE DESTRUCTION OF THE CATHOLIC IMAGES IN THE CHURCHES

Although the Regent had promised to be less severe with the Protestants, the persecutions continued and more and more of

the people changed their religion. Not being able to hold their meetings in the cities, sermons were preached in the fields outside the walls, and as their numbers grew and they gained confidence, in the open places within. At last a dreadful thing happened at Antwerp. A mob entered the churches, pulled down and damaged the sacred figures and images, ridiculed them, and indulged in all the wild excesses that mobs of ignorant and furious men are capable of. The Regent, shocked and frightened, sent Orange to Antwerp to quiet the people. His letter to the Regent shows how firmly the Protestants there stood by their religion, and indicates clearly, too, his sense of the wisdom of religious toleration.

THE PRINCE'S LETTER TO THE REGENT

“Madam: It is with the greatest difficulty that I have quieted the disturbances in this city. Those of the new religion have indulged in the utmost license, and they are so many in this city that they think they have everything in their power.

“After an infinite amount of discussion, it seemed best to make an agreement with them. I have introduced several articles securing our ancient and Catholic faith, protecting the King's service and safety of the city. I decided, however, that it was wiser to permit preaching within the walls and now give my reason for this.

“Every time the sermons are held outside, 18,000 to 20,000 persons flock out of the various gates. Trades are at a standstill in Flanders, as elsewhere, and the country is full of vagabonds, who can easily join the crowds returning from the sermons, and thus make their way into the city, which is known to be rich and full of booty. If these tramps are added to the great number of unemployed workmen already in the city there may be more trouble.

“I therefore beg your Highness to take it in good part, that I agreed to make this treaty, so that all the churches should be opened, and divine service continued, without fear of conse-

quences. It is above all important that your Highness should realize the great numbers of the reformers in the city."²²

KING PHILIP DECIDES TO CRUSH THE REBELLION

Although the Spanish king was compelled for the time to give in to the rebels, he quietly decided to send an army into the Netherlands strong enough to crush all resistance. He also



Victor Animatograph Co.

THE PRINCE OF ORANGE QUIETING THE TUMULT AT ANTWERP

decided to call for an oath of loyalty and a promise to do his bidding from all his officers, and from the princes whom he suspected of stirring up the people. Orange refused to take the oath and moved to Germany where he undertook to find assistance and to collect troops, for he well knew that a bitter war was coming. There he became a Protestant. But the Counts Egmont and Horn could not believe that the King would take their lives. Egmont was celebrated over Europe for his successes in the war

for the Spanish king against the French. Following is an old account of their execution:

“Egmont was dressed in a tabard of red damask, over which was a black, short cloak, edged with gold. On his head was a cap of black velvet, with black and white plumes, and in his hand he held a handkerchief. Spelle, the marshal of the court, sat on horseback, with his red rod in hand. The executioner stood there hidden. When the Count reached the top he took one or two turns on the platform, letting the wish escape him that he might only have died in the service of his country and the King. Then once more he asked Julian Romero whether there were no mercy. The Captain shook his head with a ‘No,’ as if it were hard, too, for him. Then in anger rather than despair, Egmont bit his lips, and throwing aside mantle and tabard, fell on his knees on one of two velvet cushions that were in readiness. The bishop prayed with him, and reaching a silver cross from a little table, gave it to him to kiss, and pronounced his blessing. Then the Count rose, threw hat and handkerchief to one side, knelt again on the cushion, drew a little cap over his eyes, nodded to the bishop that he was ready, and crying with folded hands, ‘Lord, into thy hands I intrust my soul,’ submitted to the headsman’s blow, which pierced every heart as sharply as it did the Count’s neck. The sorrow and gloom felt by the citizens were unspeakable, and even the Spanish soldiers shed tears.”²²

Then followed the execution of Count Horn.

EGMONT’S FAREWELL LETTER TO THE KING

“SIRE,—I have learned this evening the sentence which your Majesty has been pleased to pronounce upon me. Although I have never had a thought, and believe my self never to have done a deed which could tend to the harm of your Majesty’s person or service, or to our true, ancient and Catholic religion, nevertheless I take patience to bear that which it has pleased the good God to send. If, during these troubles in the Netherlands, I have done or permitted anything which had a different appear-



From an old print

THE EXECUTION OF EGMONT AND HORN

The scene of the execution was the Grande Place of Brussels (now the capital of Belgium). Numerous Spanish regiments were drawn up about the black-draped scaffold. The body of Count Egmont is covered. Count Horn is kneeling.

ance, it has been with the true and good intent to serve God and your Majesty and the necessity of the times. Therefore I pray your Majesty to forgive me, and to have compassion on my poor wife, my children and my servants; having regard to my past services. In which hope I now commend myself to the mercy of God.

“From Brussels,

“Ready to die, this 5th June, 1568.

“Your Majesty’s very humble and loyal vassal and servant,

“LAMORAL D’EGMONT.”

AN EXAMPLE OF THE HEROIC RESISTANCE OF THE CITIES:
THE RELIEF OF LEYDEN

For sixteen years after his departure for Germany Prince William was engaged in leading the Netherlands against the Spanish

armies, and in his efforts to bring the divided states into a union. The war was one of ups and downs, of horrors and heroism, of which we cannot give an account. But there now follows a story of one of the great sieges that will serve as an example of the awful struggle that took place.

You should understand that the dykes had been broken to allow the North Sea to flood the farm lands so that the vessels could sail to the relief of the city. This required a strong north wind.

“The besieged city was at its last gasp. The citizens had been in a state of uncertainty for many days, being aware that the fleet had set forth for their relief but knowing full well the thousand obstacles in the way. They had guessed its progress by the light from the blazing villages; they had heard its salvos of artillery; but since then all had been dark and mournful again. They knew that the wind was unfavorable, and at the dawn of each day every eye was turned wistfully to the vanes of the steeples. They were literally starving. Bread, malt cake and horse-flesh had entirely disappeared; dogs, cats, rats and other vermin were esteemed luxuries. Starving wretches swarmed daily around the shambles where the remaining cattle were slaughtered, contending for any morsel which might fall, and lapping eagerly the blood as it ran along the pavement; while the hides, chopped and boiled, were greedily devoured. Women and children all day long were seen searching gutters for morsels of food, which they disputed fiercely with the famishing dogs.

“In many houses the watchmen in their rounds found a whole family of corpses, father, mother and children, side by side; for a plague now came, as if in kindness, to shorten the agony of the people. A party of the more faint-hearted assailed the heroic Adrian Van der Werf with threats and reproaches as he passed through the streets. There stood the burgomaster, a tall, haggard, imposing figure, with dark visage and tranquil but commanding eye. He waved his broad-leaved hat for silence, and then exclaimed, ‘What would ye, my friends? I know that we

shall starve if not soon relieved, but starvation is better than the dishonored death which would surely be ours. Take my body to appease your hunger, but expect no surrender so long as I remain alive.' The words of the stout burgomaster inspired a new courage in the hearts of those who heard him, and a shout of applause and defiance arose from the famishing crowd.

"On the 28th of September a dove flew into the city bringing a letter from the Admiral of the Dutch fleet. The letter was read publicly in the market-place and the bells were rung for joy. Nevertheless, on the morrow the vanes pointed to the east, the waters instead of rising continued to sink, and Admiral Boisot was almost in despair. The tempest came to their relief. A violent gale came storming from the northwest. The waters of the North Sea were piled in vast masses upon the southern coast of Holland, and then dashed furiously landward sweeping across the ruined dikes.

"In the course of twenty-four hours, the fleet at North Aa, instead of nine inches, had more than two feet of water. No time was lost. The fleet sailed at midnight, in the midst of storm and darkness. There was a fierce naval midnight battle—a strange spectacle among the branches of those quiet orchards and with the chimney-stacks of half-hidden farm houses rising around them. The enemy's vessels were soon sunk, their crews hurled into the waves. On went the fleet, sweeping over the broad waters. As they approached some shallows the Zealanders dashed into the sea, and with sheer strength shouldered every vessel through.

"Two obstacles still lay in their path—the forts of Zoeterwoude and Lammen, but a panic had reached Zoeterwoude. Hardly was the fleet in sight, when the Spaniards, in the early morning, poured out from the fortress, and fled along a road which led towards the Hague. Their narrow path was rapidly vanishing in the waves and hundreds sank beneath the flood. The wild Zealanders, too, sprang from their vessels upon the crumbling dike, and drove their retreating foes into the sea.



From an old print.

THE RELIEF FLEET BREAKING THROUGH THE GREAT DIKE

The seacoast was held by the Spaniards, so the Dutch let in the sea near Delfshaven (see map, p. 238). The distance to Leyden was about 15 miles. From Delfshaven 200 boats, laden with men, cannon and supplies, had to sail over the farm-lands between Leyden was surrounded by some 62 forts, and was protected from the sea by three great dikes and many smaller ones.

They hurled their harpoons at them; they plunged into the waves in keen pursuit, attacking them with boathook and dagger.

“The first fortress was thus seized, dismantled, set on fire and passed, and a few strokes of the oars brought the whole fleet close to Lammen. Meantime the citizens of Leyden had grown wild with expectation. A dove had been dispatched by the Admiral, informing them of his precise position, and a number of citizens accompanied the burgomaster at nightfall towards one of the towers. ‘Yonder,’ he cried, stretching out his hands towards Lammen, ‘yonder, behind that fort, are bread and meat, and brethren in thousands. Shall all this be destroyed by the Spanish guns or shall we rush to the aid of our friends?’ It was resolved that an attack should be made against Lammen with the dawn.

“Night descended upon the scene, a pitch-dark night, full of anxiety to the Spaniards, to the fleet, to Leyden. Strange sights and sounds occurred at different moments to bewilder the anxious sentinel. A long procession of lights issuing from the fort was seen to flit across the black face of the waters. In the dead of night a whole section of the wall of Leyden fell with a loud crash. The horror-struck citizens thought that the Spaniards were upon them at last; the Spaniards imagined the noise to indicate a desperate attack of the citizens. Everything was vague and mysterious.

“Day dawned at length, after the feverish night, and the Admiral prepared to assault the fort. Within the fortress reigned a death-like stillness. Had Leyden, indeed, been carried in the night? Suddenly a man was seen, wading breast-high through the water from Lammen towards the fleet, while at the same time, one solitary boy was seen to wave his cap from the summit of the fort. After a moment of doubt the happy mystery was solved. The Spaniards had fled, panic-struck, during the darkness. The lights which had been seen moving during the night were the lanterns of the retreating Spaniards, and the boy who was waving his triumphant signal from the battlements had alone seen them. He had volunteered at daybreak to go there

all alone. Thus the Spaniards had retreated at the very moment that an extraordinary accident had laid bare a whole side of the city for their entrance. The noise of the wall, as it fell, only inspired them with fresh alarm. All obstacles being now removed, the fleet swept by Lammens, and entered the city the 3rd of October. Leyden was relieved.

"The quays were lined with the famishing population. As the fleet rowed through the canals every human being who could stand came forth to greet the saviors of the city. Bread was



From an old print
THE ARRIVAL OF THE RELIEF BOATS AT LEYDEN

thrown from every vessel among the crowd. The poor creatures who for two months had tasted no wholesome human food snatched eagerly the blessed gift. Many choked themselves to death; others became ill. The Admiral, stepping ashore, was welcomed by the magistrates, and a solemn procession was immediately formed. Magistrates and citizens, wild Zealanders, worn-

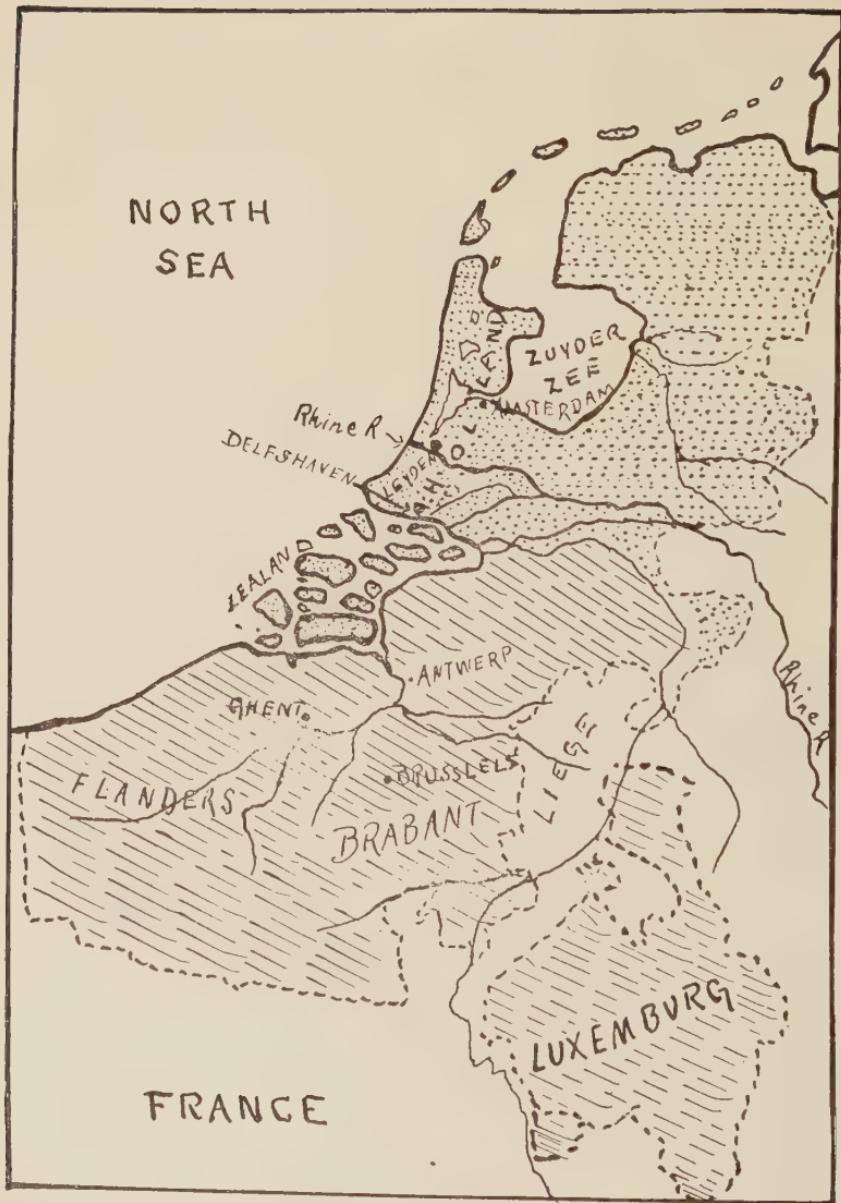
cut citizen guards, sailors, soldiers, women, children—all repaired without delay to the great church, stout Admiral Boisot leading the way. The starving and heroic city, which had been so firm in its resistance to an earthly king, now bent itself in humble gratitude before the King of Kings. After prayers the whole vast congregation joined in the thanksgiving hymn. Thousands of voices raised the song, but few were able to finish it. The hymn was abruptly stopped, while the multitude wept like children.

“A note despatched to the Prince of Orange was received by him at two o’clock, as he sat in church at Delft. The joy of the Prince may be easily imagined, and as soon as the sermon was concluded he handed the letter to the minister to be read to the congregation. Thus all participated in his joy and united with him in thanksgiving.”²³

THE ASSASSINATION OF PRINCE WILLIAM

After years of warfare the seven northern states declared themselves independent of the king of Spain and made themselves into the free commonwealth of the United Provinces of the Netherlands. The government was to be conducted by the States General, or parliament, which was careful to provide against any further tyranny on the part of the rulers. This was one of the first nations of Europe to rid itself of tyrannical kings and provide for its own self-government. Prince William became Protector as the Count of Holland, in place of the king. This he did after much hesitation, for he was afraid that people would think that he had been ambitious for himself and not a true patriot. But the people clamored for his consent and he at last gave in. That his power should be less than that of the parliament was quite to his liking, for he was a believer in government by parliament.

The southern states were brought back under the king of Spain and were to become the present kingdom of Belgium much later. The King still continued to hope that he might yet win back the



THE NETHERLANDS

The dotted part became the Netherlands (Holland); the other part returned to the Spanish king. Later Belgium was formed from it.

northern states. William of Orange was clearly the greatest obstacle, so he offered a reward for his death. This was accomplished; but the new nation was to endure.

THE DEATH OF THE PRINCE

“It was Sunday morning and the bells were tolling for church. Upon leaving the house the assassin, Balthasar Gerard, loitered about the courtyard, furtively examining the place, so that a sergeant of halberdiers asked him why he was waiting there. Balthasar meekly replied that he was desirous of attending divine worship in the church opposite, but added, pointing to his shabby and travel-stained clothes, that without at least a new pair of shoes and stockings, he was unfit to join the congregation. The small, pious, dusty stranger excited no suspicion in the mind of the good-natured sergeant. He forthwith spoke of the wants of Gerard to an officer by whom they were explained to Orange himself, and the Prince ordered money to be given him.

“Next morning with the money he purchased a pair of pistols from a soldier, chaffering long about the price because the seller could not supply a particular kind of chopped bullets or slugs which he desired. Before the sunset of the following day that soldier had stabbed himself to the heart, and died despairing, on hearing for what purpose the pistols had been bought.

“On Tuesday, the 10th of July, 1584, at about half-past twelve, the Prince, with his wife on his arm and followed by the ladies and gentlemen of his family, was going to the dining-room. He was dressed on that day, according to his usual custom, in very plain fashion. Gerard presented himself at the doorway and demanded a passport. The Princess, struck with his pale and agitated face, anxiously questioned her husband concerning the stranger. The Prince carelessly observed that ‘it was merely a person who came for a passport,’ ordering, at the same time, a secretary forthwith to prepare one. The Princess, still not relieved, observed in an undertone, that she had never seen so villainous a countenance. Orange, however, not at all impressed

with the appearance of Gerard. conducted himself at table with his usual cheerfulness.

“At two o’clock the company rose from the table. The Prince led the way, intending to pass to his private apartment above. The dining-room, which was on the ground floor, opened into a little square vestibule. This vestibule was directly at the foot of the wooden staircase leading to the next floor. Behind this a door opened to the narrow lane at the side of the house. The Prince came from the dining-room and began leisurely to ascend. He had only reached the second stair, when a man emerged from the vestibule, and standing within a foot or two of him, discharged a pistol full at his heart. Three balls entered his body, one of which, passing quite through him, struck with violence against the wall beyond. The Prince exclaimed in French, as he felt the wound, ‘Oh my God, have mercy upon my soul! Oh my God, have mercy upon this poor people.’ These were the last words he ever spoke, save that when his sister immediately afterwards asked him if he commended his soul to Jesus Christ, he faintly answered ‘Yes.’

“His master of the horse had caught him in his arms as the fatal shot was fired. The Prince was then placed on the stairs for an instant, when he immediately began to swoon. He was afterwards laid upon a couch in the dining-room, where in a few minutes he breathed his last in the arms of his wife and sister.

“The murderer succeeded in making his escape through the side door and sped swiftly up the narrow lane. He had almost reached the ramparts, from which he intended to spring into the moat, when he stumbled over a heap of rubbish. As he rose he was seized by several pages and halberdiers, who had pursued him from the house. He had dropped his pistols upon the spot where he had committed his crime, and upon his body was found a couple of bladders provided with a piece of pipe, with which he had intended to assist himself across the moat, beyond which a horse was waiting for him. He made no effort to conceal his name, but boldly avowed himself and his deed. He was brought



Painting by W. Lindenschmidt

THE DEATH OF WILLIAM OF ORANGE

Keystone View Co.

back to the house where he immediately underwent an examination before the city magistrates. He was afterwards subjected to dreadful tortures; for the fury against the wretch who had destroyed the Father of the Country was beyond control, and William the Silent was no longer able to take the part—as he had often done before—of those who assailed his life.”²³

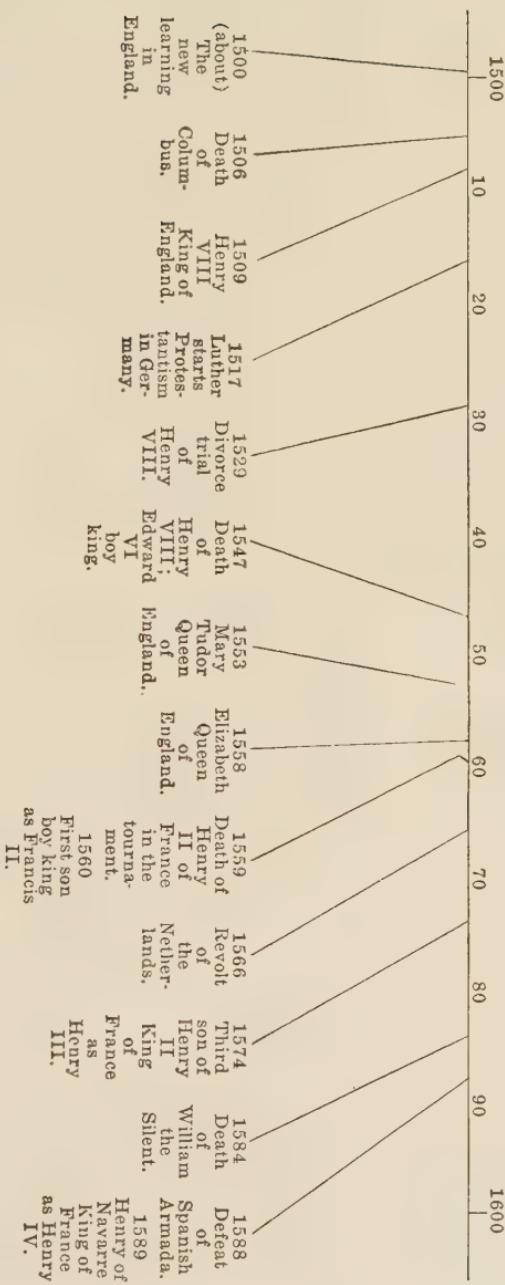
QUESTIONS

1. To whom did the Netherlands belong at the beginning of the story?
2. Why was it that the people of the Netherlands were more independent of their lords and princes than were some other nations?
3. Why did they revolt?
4. Why were Counts Egmont and Horn beheaded?
5. Which part became the United Provinces of the Netherlands? Who was the leader? What country is this today?
6. Why did the other provinces return to Spain? To what nation do most of these lands belong today?
7. What was unusual about the government of the new Dutch nation? What was done about religion?

REVIEW OF PART THREE

Part Two told of the discovery of two great continents by the leading nations of Europe. We learned from it also how keenly interested the rival kings of these nations were in obtaining any advantage they could from the new discoveries. We realized that they would be very desirous of claiming and possessing as much as possible of the new lands, as soon as they understood a new world had been found. But before going on with the story of their conquests in America, we felt the need of becoming better acquainted with the nations that were to take part in the contest. This we have done in Part Three, for our stories have dealt with each of them: Spain, France, England and Holland. Let us now return to the American story, after studying the Time Line for Part Three.

TIME LINE FOR THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY IN EUROPE

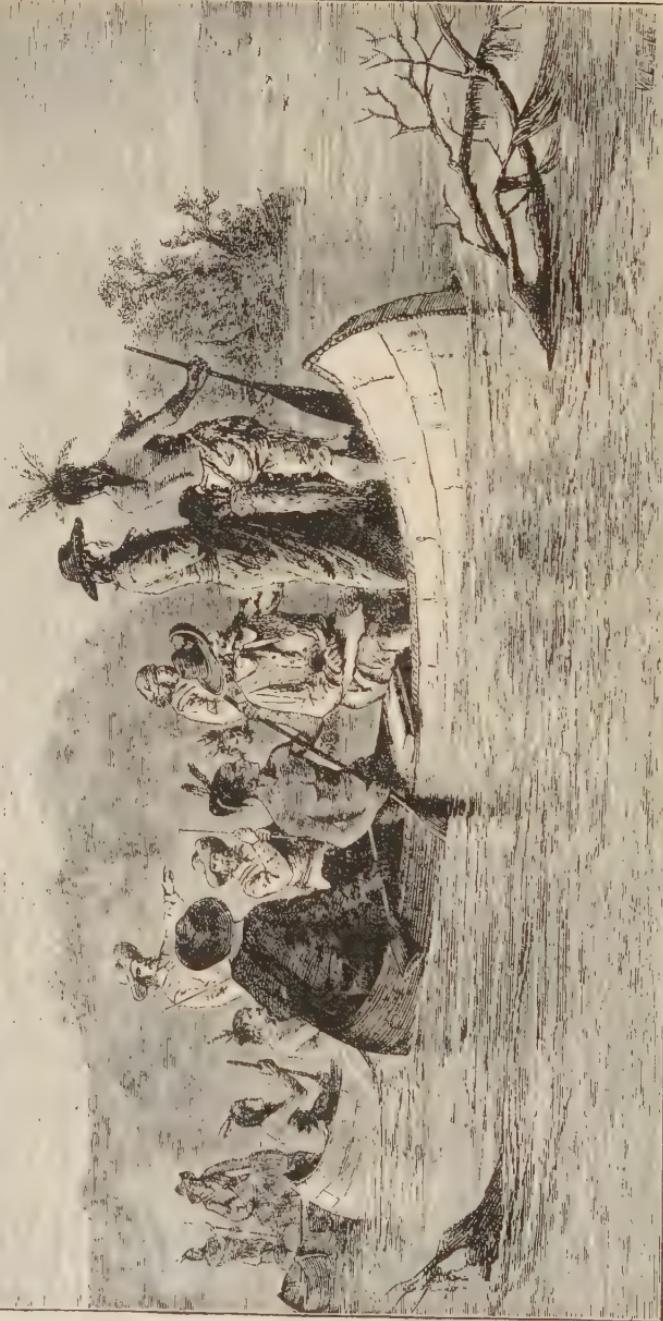


QUESTIONS

1. In which part of the sixteenth century did the events of our English story occur?
2. In which part of this century did the events of the French story occur? the events of the story of the Netherlands?
3. Who was the sovereign of England during the time in which the events of the stories of France and of the Netherlands took place?

EXPLORING THE UNKNOWN CONTINENT

From an old drawing



PART FOUR

THE STRUGGLE FOR THE NEW WORLD

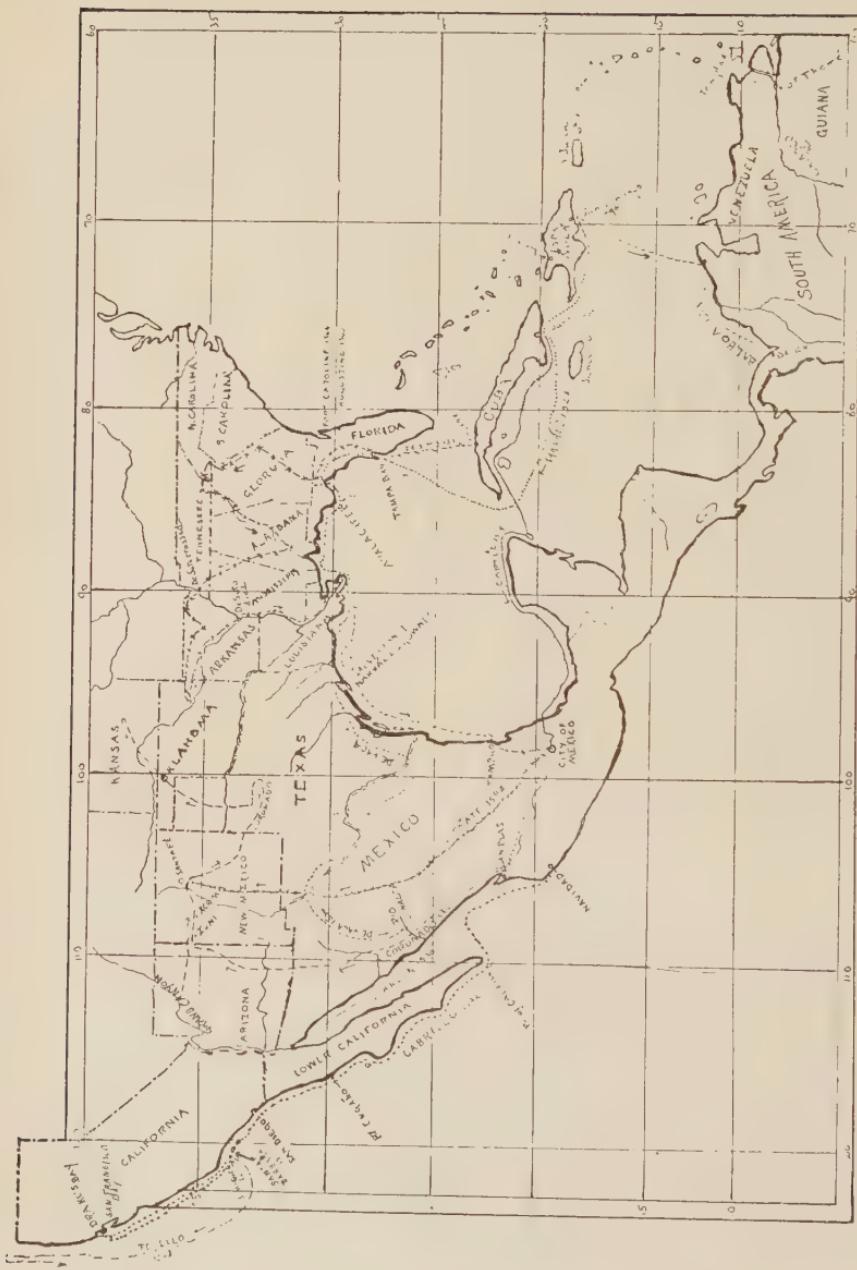
THE SPANISH IN THE SOUTHWEST

In Part Three we learned something of what was going on in Europe during the sixteenth century (1500 to 1600). It was a century of trouble and bloodshed. Not only were the rival nations—Spain, England, France and Holland—striving with one another for power and trade; the people of each were divided among themselves over the question of religion. By the close of the century, however, we noticed that things had somewhat settled down. Spain remained the leading Catholic country. England and Holland were the foremost Protestant lands. France was at peace under Henry IV, and was to remain chiefly Catholic.

We must now return to the story of America and notice what was happening there during this same century. In the struggle for the possession of the new lands by these same rival nations, we shall expect to see the effects of the religious quarrels that were taking place in the home countries. The Time Line for the stories of the early discoveries on page 177 shows that notwithstanding the voyages of Cabot for England, and of Verazzano and Cartier for France, Spain had made the greatest strides in taking over the new continent. This lead she kept through the remainder of the century, for it was not until the early years of the seventeenth century (1600 to 1700) that France and England and Holland made their permanent settlements, although France and England had both tried before that, as we shall see.

THE STRANGE ADVENTURES OF DE VACA

De Vaca was an officer in the expedition of Narváez, which landed near Tampa Bay, Florida, in the spring of 1528 (see map, p. 246). The expedition consisted of 300 colonists, five priests, and 40 armored officers and soldiers mounted on horses. Hearing of gold inland, the party advanced into the interior, only to be forced



MAP OF NEW SPAIN
Showing the routes of Balboa, Cortés, Narváez and Cabeza de Vaca, De Soto, Coronado and Alarcón, Cabrillo and Ferrell; also the positions of Fort Caroline and St. Augustine. Which American states were traversed by De Soto? By Coronado?

back to the coast in distress, where they were unable to locate their ships. At this point the narrative is taken up by De Vaca in the extract that follows.

THE DEPARTURE OF THE ABANDONED PARTY FROM THE
COAST OF FLORIDA

It was piteous to witness our distress. There was not anywhere to go; and if there had been, the people were unable to move forward, the greater part being ill. One thing occurred worse than all the rest, which



SPANISH LANDING IN FLORIDA

Keystone View Co.

was, that of the persons mounted, the greater part commenced secretly to plot, hoping to secure a better fate for themselves by leaving the Governor and the sick. But as among them there were many persons of gentle birth, they would not permit this to go on. The Governor called them all to him and asked advice as to what he should do. After considering many plans we decided to build vessels in which we might go away. This appeared impossible to every one. We knew not how to construct, nor were there tools, iron, forge, tow, resin or rigging; nor any man who had a knowledge of their manufacture. Above all there was nothing to eat while building. We agreed to think of the subject

with more care, each going his way, commanding our course to God, our Lord.

The next day it was His will that one of the company should come saying that he could make some pipes out of wood, which with deer-skins might be made into bellows, and we told him to set himself to work. We agreed to the making of nails, saws, axes and other tools, from the stirrups, spurs, crossbows, and other things of iron there were. We planned for our support while the work was going on that we would make four entries into the interior with all the horses and men that were able to go, and that on every third day a horse should be killed to be divided among those that labored. We brought back 640 bushels of maize; but these were not got without quarrels with the Indians.

We commenced to build on the 4th, with the only carpenter in the company, and we proceeded with so great diligence that on the 20th day of September five boats were finished 22 cubits in length, each ealked with the fiber of the palmetto [palm tree]. We pitched them with a resin made from pine trees by a Greek; from the husk of the palmetto and from the tails and manes of the horses we made ropes and rigging; from our shirts, sails; and from the cedars growing there we made oars. Such was the country that only by very great search could we find stone for ballast and anchors. We flayed the horses, taking the skin from their legs entire, and tanning them to make bottles to carry water.

During this time some went gathering shellfish in the coves and creeks of the sea, where the Indians killed ten men in sight of the camp, without our being able to help. We found their bodies pierced from side to side with arrows, although some had on good armor.

Before we embarked there died more than 40 men of disease and hunger. By the 22nd of September the horses had been eaten, one only remaining; and on that day we embarked. In the boat of the Governor went 49 men. The last boat was given to the assessor and myself, with 49 men. After the provisions and clothing had been taken in, not over a span of the gunwales remained above water, and the boats were so crowded that we could not move.

The harbor we left bears the name of Bahia de Caballos [“Bay of Horses”: It was St. Mark’s Bay of Appalachee Bay]. We passed in water waist deep through sounds without seeing any sign of the

coast, and at the close of the 7th day we came to an island near the land. My boat went first, and from her we saw Indians approaching in five canoes, which they abandoned and left in our hands. The other boats passed ahead, and stopped at some houses on the island where we found many dried mullet and roes which were a great relief in our distress. After taking these we went on to the coast, where with the canoes I had taken we somewhat improved the boats so that the sides rose two palms above the water. This done we returned to move along



From Bryant & Gay's Popular History of U. S.
THE RETURN TO THE COAST

the coast in a southwesterly direction, our hunger and thirst continually increasing, for our food was giving out, the water was gone, and the bottles made from the legs of the horses having soon rotted, were useless. Sometimes we entered coves and creeks that lay far in and found them all shallow and dangerous. Thus we journeyed along for thirty days, finding occasionally Indian fishermen, a poor and miserable lot. . . .

As it was now five days since we had drunk, our thirst was so excessive that it put us to the extremity of swallowing salt water, by which some of the men became so crazed that three or four suddenly died. As our thirst increased and the water killed us, we resolved to commend

ourselves to God our Lord and try the peril of the sea. On this day we were ourselves many times overwhelmed by the waves, and in such danger that there was not one who did not suppose his death certain. Thanks be to Him that in the greatest dangers He was wont to show us his favor; for at sunset doubling a point of land, we found shelter with much calm [Pensacola Bay].

AT THE MOUTH OF THE MISSISSIPPI RIVER

We sailed that day until the middle of the afternoon when my boat, which was the first, passed a broad river. I cast anchor to await the arrival of the other boats. We came together and took fresh water from the sea, the stream entering it in freshet. To parch some of the maize we brought with us we went on an island; but finding no wood we agreed to go to the river, one league off. By no effort could we get there, so violent was the current on the way, which drove us out while we strove to gain the land. The north wind began to blow so strongly that it forced us to sea.

Thus we continued in company, eating a daily allowance of half a handful of raw maize, until the end of four days when we lost sight of each other in a storm. The people began next day to despair. Of the whole number at this time not five men were on their feet, and when night came only the master and myself were left who could work the boat. Two hours after dark he said to me that I must take charge of her as he believed he should die that night. So I took the paddle and going after midnight to see if the master was alive he said to me he was rather better and would take charge until day. I declare in that hour I would more willingly have died than seen so many people before me in such condition. After the master took the direction of the boat I lay down a little while, but without repose, for nothing at that time was further from me than sleep.

Near the dawn of day it seemed to me I heard the tumbling of the sea, for as the coast was low it roared loudly. We sounded and found ourselves in seven fathoms. Near the shore a wave took us that knocked the boat out of the water the distance of the throw of a crowbar, and from the violence with which she struck, nearly all the people who were in her like dead, were roused. Finding themselves near the shore they began to move on hands and feet, crawling to land into some ravines.

There we made fire, parched some of the maize we brought, and found rain water. From the warmth of the fire the people recovered and began somewhat to exert themselves.

SAVED BY THE INDIANS ON AN ISLAND OFF THE TEXAS COAST (GALVESTON?)

At sunrise the next day the Indians brought us a large quantity of fish with certain roots. They sent their women and children to look



at us, who went back rich with the hawk bells and beads given them, and they came afterwards on other days. Finding that we had provision, fish, roots, water, and other things we asked for, we determined to embark again and pursue our course. Having dug out our boat from the sand in which it was buried, it became necessary that we should strip and go through great labor to launch her.

Thus embarked, at the distance of two crossbow shots in the sea we shipped a wave that nearly wet us. As we were naked and the cold very great, the oars loosened in our hands, and the next blow the sea

struck us and capsized the boat. The assessor and two others held fast to her, but the boat carried them over and they were drowned under her. As the surf near the shore was very high, a single roll of the sea threw the rest into the waves and, half drowned, upon the shore of the island. The survivors escaped naked as they were born with the loss of all they had, and although this was of little value, at that time it was worth much, as we were then in November, the cold was severe and our bodies were so thin the bones might be counted with little difficulty. For myself I can say that from the month of May I had eaten no other thing than maize, and sometimes I found myself obliged to eat it unparched; for although the horses were slaughtered while the boats were building, I could never eat their flesh, and I did not eat fish ten times. Besides all these misfortunes, came a north wind upon us, from which we were nearer to death than life. Thanks be to our Lord that looking among the brands we had used there we found sparks from which we made great fires. And thus we were asking mercy of Him and pardon for our sins, shedding many tears, and each regretting not his own fate alone, but that of his comrades about him.

At sunset the Indians, thinking that we had not gone, came to bring us food; but when they saw us thus they were alarmed and turned back. I gave them to understand by signs that our boat had sunk and three of our number had been drowned. There, before them, they saw two of the dead. The Indians, at sight of what had befallen us, sat down among us and began to lament so earnestly that they might have been heard at a distance. It was strange to see these men, wild and untaught, howling like brutes over our misfortunes. It caused in me, as in others, a livelier sense of our calamity.

The cries having ceased, I talked with the Christians, and said that if it appeared well to them, I would beg these Indians to take us to their houses. Some, who had been in New Spain, replied that we ought not to think of it; for if they should do so, they would sacrifice us to their idols. But seeing no better plan I besought the Indians to take us to their dwellings. They signified that it would give them delight. Presently thirty men loaded themselves with wood and started for their houses, which were far off. We remained with the others until near night, when, holding us up, they carried us with all haste. Because of the extreme coldness of the weather, lest anyone should die or fail by

the way, they caused four or five very large fires to be placed at intervals, and at each they warmed us, and when they saw that we had regained some heat and strength they took us to the next so swiftly that they hardly let us touch our feet to the ground. In this manner they went as far as their village, where we found that they had made a house for us with many fires in it. An hour after our arrival they began to dance and hold great rejoicing which lasted all night, although for us there was no joy nor sleep, awaiting the hour they should make



*From Bryant & Gay's Popular History of U. S.
UPSET IN THE SURF*

us victims. In the morning they again gave us fish and roots, showing us such hospitality that we were reassured, and lost somewhat the fear of sacrifice.

DE VACA BECOMES A TRADER

I was obliged to remain with the people belonging to the island more than a year and because of the hard work they put upon me I resolved to flee from them. Besides much other labor I had to get out roots from below the water and from among the cane where they grew in the ground. I had my fingers so worn that did a straw but touch them they would bleed. Many of the canes were broken so they often tore my flesh. Accordingly I set to trading and by that means I got food and

good treatment. The Indians would beg me to go from one quarter to another for things of which they had need; for because of constant wars they cannot traverse the country nor make many exchanges. I went into the interior as far as I pleased and travelled along the coast 40 or 50 leagues. The principal articles I took inland were cones and other pieces of sea-snail, conchs used for cutting, and fruit like a bean of the highest value among them, which they use as a medicine and employ in their dances and festivities. Among other things were sea-beads. In barter I brought back skins, ochre with which they rub and color the face, hard canes of which to make arrows, sinews, cement and flint for the heads, and tassels of the hair of deer that by dyeing they make red. This occupation suited me well; for the travel allowed me liberty to go where I wished, I was not obliged to work, and was not a slave. My main purpose while journeying in this business was to find out the way by which I should go forward, and I became well known. The inhabitants were pleased when they saw me. The hardships that I underwent in this were long to tell, as well as peril and privation from storms and cold. Oftentimes they overtook me alone and in the wilderness; but I came forth from them all by the great mercy of God our Lord. I avoided pursuing the business in winter, a season in which the natives themselves retire to their huts and ranches.

I was in this country nearly six years, alone among the Indians, and naked like them. The reason why I remained so long was that I might take with me the Christian, Lope de Oviedo, from the island. He put me off every year, saying in the next coming we would start. At last I got him off, crossing him over the bay, and over four rivers in the coast, as he could not swim. In this way we went on with some Indians.

DE VACA AND HIS THREE COMPANIONS CROSS SOUTHERN TEXAS AND NORTHERN MEXICO AS MEDICINE MEN

Many Indians came and brought five persons who had cramps and were very unwell. They came that Castillo [one of De Vaca's companions] might cure them. Each offered his bow and arrows which Castillo received. At sunset he blessed them, commanding them to God our Lord, and we all prayed to Him the best we could to send health. The morning having come, all got up well and sound. It caused great admiration, and inclined us to render many thanks to God our Lord. For myself I can say that I ever had trust in His providence that he

would lead me out from that captivity, and thus I always spoke of it to my companions. No one whom we treated but told us he was left well; and so great was the confidence in us they even believed that while we remained none of them could die.

Of the eight months we were among this people, six we spent in great want, for fish are not to be found where they are. At the end of the time the prickly pears began to ripen. We ate daily not more than two handfuls of these which were green and so milky they burned our mouths. As there was lack of water, those who ate suffered great thirst. In our extreme want we bought two dogs, giving in exchange some nets, with other things, and a skin I used to cover myself.

I have already stated that throughout all this country we went naked, and as we were unused to being so, twice a year we passed our skins like serpents. The sun and air produced great sores on our breasts and shoulders, giving us sharp pain; and the large loads we had caused the cords to cut into our arms. Often after getting our wood in the forests the blood flowed from us in many places, caused by the thorns and shrubs that tore our flesh. Sometimes the Indians would set me to scraping and softening skins, and these were the days of my greatest prosperity. I would scrape them a very great deal and eat the scraps, which would sustain me two or three days. When it happened that a piece of meat was given us, we ate it raw; for if we had put it to roast the first native that should come along would have taken it off and devoured it; besides we could not have digested it so well as raw.

They fetched a man to me and stated that a long time since he had been wounded by an arrow in the right shoulder, and that the point of the shaft was lodged above his heart, which, he said, gave him much pain. Probing the wound, I felt the arrow-head, and found it had passed through the cartilage. With a knife I carried, I opened the breast to the place and saw the point was aslant and troublesome to take out. I continued to cut, and at last with great difficulty I drew the head forth. It was very large. With the bone of the deer I made two stitches that threw the blood over me, and with hair from a skin I stopped the flow. They asked me for the arrow-head after I had taken it out, which I gave, when the whole town came to look at it. They sent it into the back country that the people there might view it. In consequence of this operation they had many of their customary

dances and festivities. The next day I cut the two stiches and the Indian was well. The wound I made appeared only like a seam in the palm of the hand. He said he felt no pain in it whatsoever. We left there and travelled through so many sorts of people, of so many languages, the memory fails to recall them. We drew so many followers that we had not use for their services.

THE RUMOR OF WHITE MEN

In this time Castillo saw the buckle of a sword-belt on the neck of an Indian, and stitched to it the nail of a horseshoe. He took them; and we asked the native what they were; he answered that they came from heaven. We asked him who had brought them there. They all responded that certain men who wore beards like us had come from heaven and arrived at that river, bringing horses, lances and swords, and that they had lanced two Indians. As calmly as we could we asked them what had become of these men. They answered us that they had gone to sea, putting their lances beneath the water and going themselves also under the water; afterwards that they were seen on the surface going towards the sunset. For this we gave many thanks to God our Lord. We had before despaired of every hearing more of Christians.

We passed through many territories and found them all vacant. Their people wandered among the mountains, without daring to have houses or till the earth for fear of Christians. The sight was one of infinite pain to us, a land very fertile and beautiful, abounding in springs and streams, the hamlets deserted and burned, the people thin and weak, all fleeing or in concealment. Thus it may at once be seen that to bring all these people to be Christians and to obey the king they must be won by kindness, which is a way certain, and no other is.

The next morning I took the Negro [a slave with De Vaca] with eleven Indians, and following the Christians by their trail I overtook four of them on horseback, who were astonished at the sight of me, so strangely clothed as I was, and in company with Indians. They stood staring at me a length of time, so confounded that they neither hailed me nor drew near to ask questions. I bade them take me to their chief. Accordingly we went together half a league to the place where was Diego de Alcaraz, their captain. I asked the Christians to give me a certificate of the year, month and day I arrived there, and of the manner of my coming, which they did. From this river [evidently Rio

Sinaloa] to the town of the Christians, named San Miguel, within the government of the province called New Galicia, are thirty leagues.²⁴

QUESTIONS

1. To what expedition did Cabeza de Vaca belong, and what was the purpose of that expedition?
2. Trace the route taken by De Vaca on your outline map. About how many miles were covered?
3. Which American state was traveled over by the party?
4. Why was it so difficult for the Spaniards in Mexico to believe the story of De Vaca?
5. How many years had been spent since the landing in Florida, when the party arrived in Mexico?
6. De Vaca told the governor of Mexico that the country he had passed through had gold and silver and rich cities. Was this knowledge or hearsay? What effect would this report probably have on the mind of the governor?
7. What kind of a man does De Vaca seem to have been? Explain.
8. Can you find the story of the first expedition that was sent from Mexico to find the cities De Vaca had heard of? What cities were these? What was the result of this expedition?
9. Who was the first really to explore these regions thoroughly? (See the two pages following.) What was the result of this second expedition? How many years was this after the arrival of De Vaca in Mexico?

CORONADO IN THE SOUTHWEST

The tales of Cabeza de Vaca and his companions helped out rumors that had already come to the governor of Mexico of rich and splendid cities to the northward. A great expedition was fitted out under the command of Coronado to find them. There were 300 men, many of them gentlemen in helmets and polished mail, bearing flashing lances and mounted on excellent horses clad in sweeping colored blankets, silver-mounted harness and leather armor. The foot-soldiers were armed with crossbow and arquebus, some with swords and shields. There were several hundred Indian allies in their warpaint. The expedition was equipped with pack-mules, cannon and a thousand horses. For food along the way and to supply the new country with them, there were droves of cattle and sheep, goats and swine. At the head of all rode Coronado in gilded armor.

To the utter disgust of Coronado and his men the splendid cities turned out to be the mud-built Zuni pueblos of New Mexico, which seen at a distance in the twilight had captivated the imagination of the earlier visitors. But the search was continued through the deserts, barren mountains and great canyons of the Southwest. With a few horsemen Coronado reached as far as Central Kansas, only to find there a few Indian settlements instead of a gorgeous city he had heard of. A few hundred miles away De Soto was exploring Arkansas. An Indian woman who had run away from the army of Coronado fell in with De Soto's nine days later.

One of the several side-expeditions made by captains of Coronado was to the Grand Canyon of the Colorado. This was led by Cardenas, the first white man to view that great chasm. Here is what Cardenas had to say of it:

"After they had gone twenty days' march, they came to the banks of a river, which are so high that from the edge of one bank to the other appeared to be three or four leagues in the air. They spent three days on this bank looking for a passage down to the river, which looked from above as if the water were six feet across, although the Indians said it was half a league wide. It was impos-

Painting by Remington

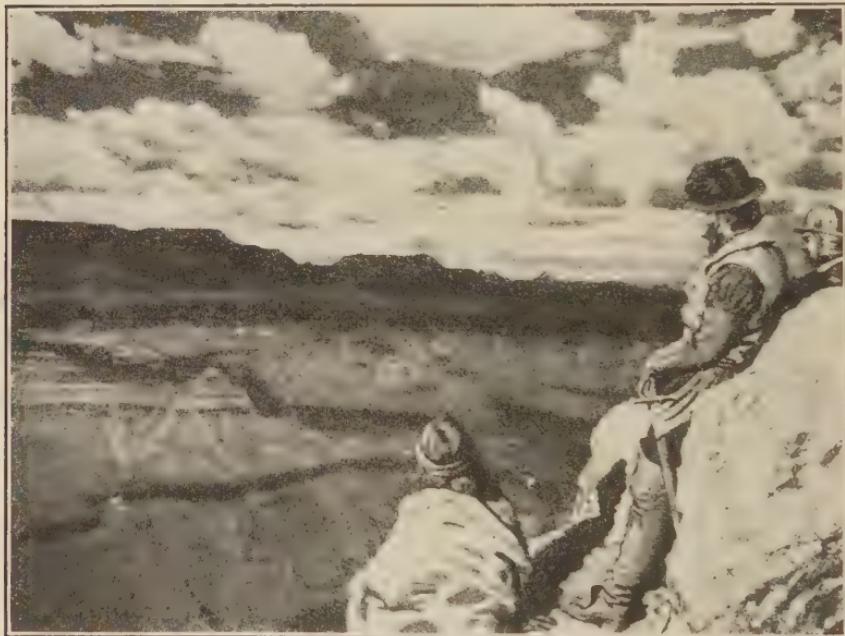


CORONADO ON THE PLAINS

Courtesy of The Mentor Magazine

An American artist pictures Coronado's wayworn band making its weary way over the sunburnt plains. For the route see map on page 246.

sible to descend, for after three days Captain Melgosa, and one Juan Galeras and another companion, who were the three lightest and most agile men, made an attempt to go down at the least difficult place, and went down until those who were above were unable to keep sight of them. They returned about four o'clock in the afternoon, not having succeeded in reaching the bottom on account



Victor Animatograph Co.
THE DISCOVERY OF THE GRAND CANYON

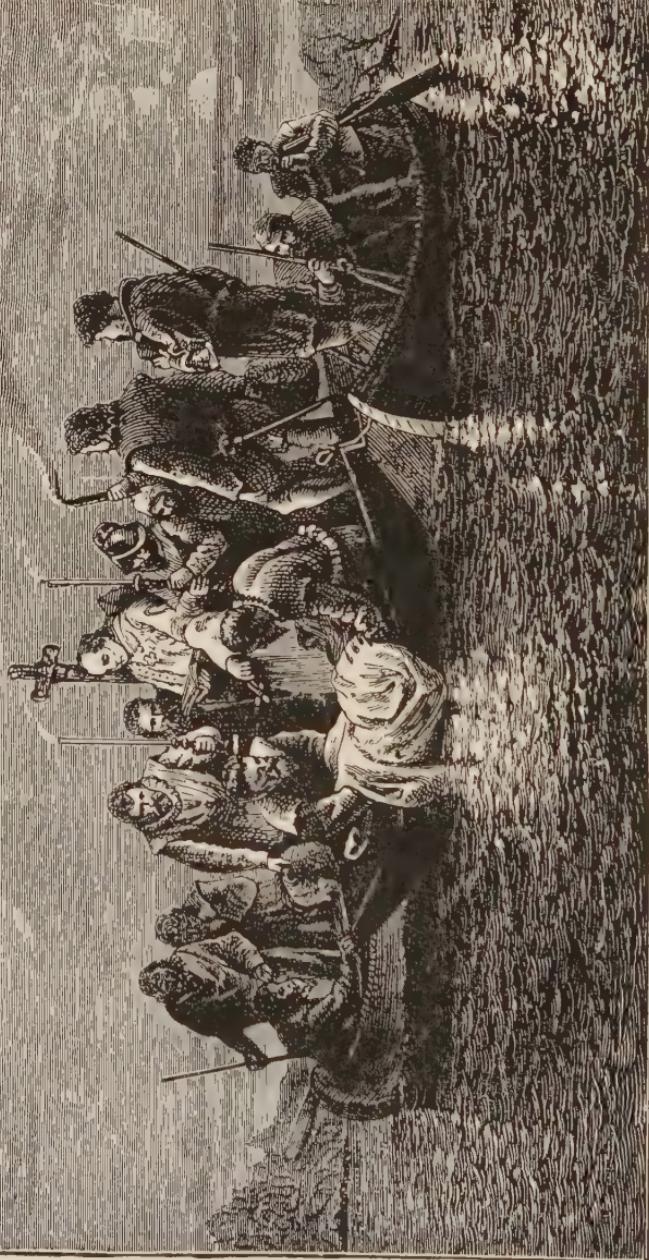
of the great difficulties. They said they had been down about a third of the way and that the river seemed very large from the place which they reached. Those who stayed above had estimated that some huge rocks on the sides of the cliffs seemed to be about as tall as a man, but those who went down swore that when they reached these rocks they were bigger than the great tower of Seville."

DE SOTO SEARCHES FOR GOLD IN THE LAND OF FLORIDA, 1539-1542

In spite of the disappointments and sufferings of the expedition of Narváez, Cabeza de Vaca spread the report that Florida was "the richest country of the world." This false report aroused the ambition of Ferdinand de Soto, living in Spain after having fought brilliantly in South America, where he gained much wealth. With nine ships containing over 620 men and 223 horses he arrived at Tampa Bay, Florida, from Cuba in 1539. For three long years he led his men in a weary search for gold, covering a large part of the southeastern part of North America, through dense forests and terrible swamps, and across swollen rivers (see map, p. 246). A stern leader, De Soto fought the Indians cruelly. He reached the Mississippi in 1541, crossed it, and spent the next winter in what is now the state of Arkansas. Returning to the Mississippi the next summer, he was stricken with fever and died. His remaining followers floated down the river on rafts, coasted along the Gulf of Mexico, and at last reached New Spain in a battered and exhausted condition. From the account of a man who was with the expedition we have taken two brief extracts, one telling of the crossing of the Mississippi, the other describing De Soto's death and burial:

They made houses, and pitched their camp in a plain field, a crossbow shot from the river. In thirty days' time, while the Governor remained there, they made four barges, in three of which he commanded twelve horsemen to enter (four in each of them) in a morning three hours before day—men who he trusted would land in spite of the Indians or die; and some crossbowmen went with them, and rowers to set them on the other side. And because the stream was swift they went a quarter of a league up the river along the bank, and crossing over fell down with the stream and landed just across from the camps.

Two stones' cast before they came to land the horsemen went out of the barges on horseback to a sandy plot of very hard and clear ground, where all of them landed without resistance. The barges then returned to the place where the Governor was, and within two hours after sun-



THE BURIAL OF DE SOTO

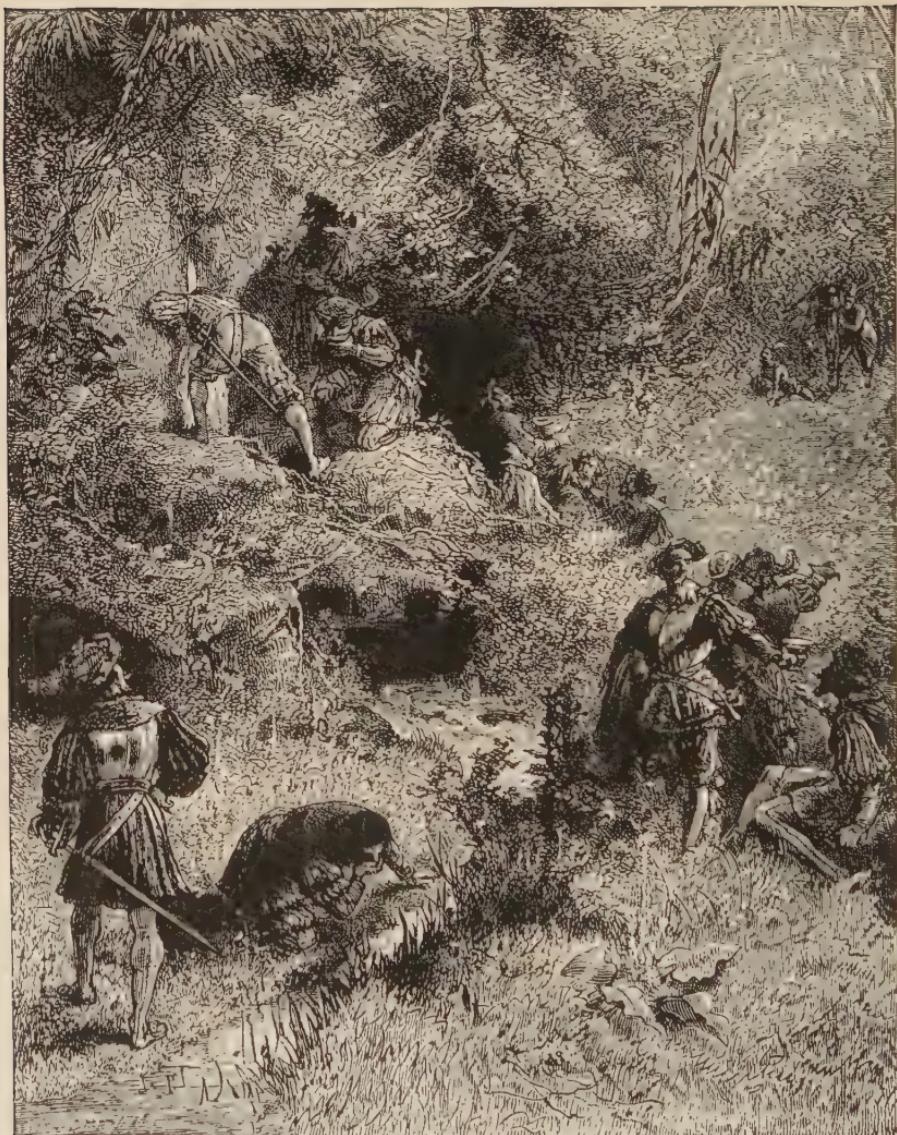
rising all the people were over. The river was almost half a league broad. If a man stood still on the other side, it could not be told whether he were a man or no. The river was of great depth and of a strong current. It was always muddy. There came down continually many trees and timber, carried by the force of the stream. There was great store of fish in it of many kinds, most of it differing from the fresh-water fish of Spain.

THE BURIAL OF DE SOTO

The Governor fell into great dumps to see how hard it was to get to the sea, and worse because his men and horses every day died, being without food to sustain themselves in the country; and with that thought he fell sick, being sorely troubled with fevers. On the 21st of May, 1542, departed out of this life the virtuous and valiant captain, Don Fernando de Soto, Governor of Cuba and of Florida. In his sickness he had but little comfort. Luys de Moscoso [the new commander] determined to conceal his death from the Indians, because De Soto had made them believe that the Christians never died, and if they should know that he was dead they would be bold to attack them. He commanded that De Soto be buried in the night at one of the gates of the town within the wall. And as the Indians had seen him sick and missed him, so did they suspect what might be. And passing by the place where he was buried, seeing the earth moved, they looked and spake to one another. Luys de Moscoso therefore commanded him to be taken up by night, and to cast a great deal of sand into the mantles in which he was wrapped, wherein he was carried in a canoe and thrown into the midst of the river.²⁵

QUESTIONS

1. What was De Soto searching for and why did he search in the country about Florida?
2. What good came of his expedition?
3. Who had seen the mouth of the Mississippi before De Soto crossed it?
4. Trace the route of De Soto on your outline map.
5. Can you find the interesting story of Juan Ortiz? What other stories can you find about the expedition of De Soto?



From Bryant & Gay's Popular History of U. S.

THE SEARCH FOR THE FOUNTAIN OF YOUTH

Ponce de León visited Florida in 1513, twenty-six years before the visit of De Soto. He had conquered Porto Rico and was governor of that island. There were rumors of a wonderful island to the northward called Bimini. It was said to abound in gold and to contain a fountain which would make the old young again. De León was in poor health and undertook to find this island. He sighted land off the present site of St. Augustine on Easter Sunday and named the new land Florida in honor of the day. But he found neither gold nor the fountain.

THE BEGINNINGS OF SPANISH FLORIDA, 1565

You will remember in our earlier story of the troubles in France that when Catherine, the Queen Mother, was ruling the kingdom because her second son, Charles IX, was still a boy, she made friends of the Huguenot leaders and had their help in governing the kingdom. Admiral Coligny, as you know, was one of the leading Huguenots; and it was he who now urged the Queen Mother to establish French colonies in America. He pointed out the advantage to France in having a great trade there like that of Spain. He also wished to make a refuge there for his Huguenot followers. The Queen Mother agreed to the plan and an expedition was sent out, which ended in failure in South Carolina. Two years later another expedition was sent over which planted Fort Caroline on St. John's River in Florida. This seemed to the Spanish king a bold invasion of his territory, for it had long since been claimed for him by Ponce de León, Narváez and De Soto. Moreover, the colony stood just where it could threaten the Spanish treasure ships as they passed by way of the Bahama Channel on their way home to Spain. That the colonists should be Huguenots only made them more disliked. Philip of Spain—the same king who was to be so cruel with the people of the Netherlands some years after this—decided to destroy the settlement. A fleet of fifteen ships was sent over to America for this purpose under the command of Menéndez, with several hundred colonists. A French fleet with supplies and colonists for Fort Caroline had just arrived and was busy sending some of the colonists up the river to the fort when the Spanish fleet appeared. The story is now continued by the chaplain of the Spanish fleet, as follows:

“Thanks to God and the prayers of the Blessed Virgin, we soon had the pleasure of seeing land. We steered in that direction, anchored near a point of land, and found ourselves actually in Florida, and not very far distant from the enemy, which was for us an occasion of great joy. That very evening our general assembled the pilots on the galley to discuss what was to be done. Next

day, the 29th of August, at daylight, the galley and all the other ships weighed anchor and coasted along in search of the enemy or a harbor favorable for disembarking. On Wednesday, the 3rd, two hours before sunset, we saw four French ships at the mouth of a river [St. John's]. All the ships of our fleet put themselves in good position; the troops were in the best of spirits, and full of confidence in the great talents of the captain-general. They followed the galley; but as our general is a very clever and artful officer, he did not fire nor seek to make any attack on the enemy.



*From Bryant & Gay's Popular History of U. S.
ENTERING ST. JOHN'S RIVER*

He went straight to the French galley, and cast anchor about eight paces from her. The other vessels went to the windward and very near the enemy. During these movements, which lasted until about two hours after sunset, not a word was said on either side. Never in my life have I known such stillness.

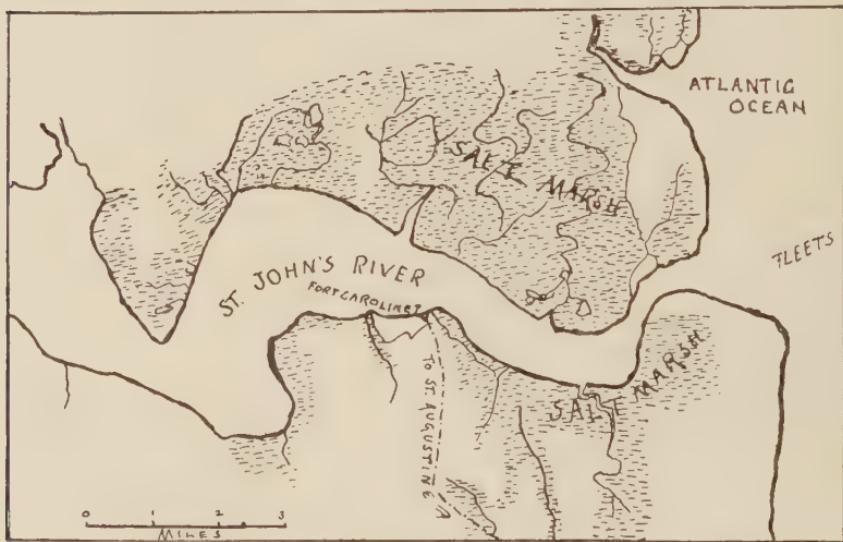
“Our general inquired of the French galley, which was the vessel nearest his, ‘Whence does this fleet come?’ They answered, ‘From France.’ ‘What are you doing here?’ said the general.

‘This is the territory of King Philip II. I order you to leave directly; for I neither know who you are nor what you want here.’ The French commander then replied, ‘I am bringing soldiers and supplies to the fort of the king of France.’ He then asked the name of the general of our fleet, and was told, ‘Pedro Menéndez de Aviles, captain-general of the king of Spain; I have come to hang all Lutherans [Huguenots] I find here.’

“Our general then asked him the name of his commander. Scarcely had the French made reply when they slipped their cables, spread their sails and passed through our midst. Our admiral, seeing this, followed the French commander and called upon him to lower his sails, in the name of King Philip, to which he received an impudent answer. Immediately our admiral gave an order to discharge a small culverin, the ball from which struck the vessel amidships, and I thought she was going to founder. We gave chase, and some time after he again called on them to lower their sails. ‘I would sooner die than surrender!’ replied the French commander. The order was given to fire a second shot, which carried off five or six men; but as these miserable devils are very good sailors we could not take one of them; and notwithstanding all the guns we fired at them, we did not sink one of their ships. During the whole night our flagship and the galley chased the French flagship and galley. The next morning at sunrise so great a storm arose that we feared we should be shipwrecked; and as our vessels were so small we did not dare to remain on the open sea and regained the shore; that is, three of our vessels anchored at about a league and a half from it. We had double moorings, but the wind was so strong that one of them broke loose. As our galley was a large one and busy following up the enemy, she could not come to our assistance. So we felt ourselves in danger of being attacked. The same evening, about sunset, we perceived a sail afar off, which we supposed was one of our galleys, and which was a great subject of rejoicing; but as the ship approached we discovered it was the French flagship which we had fired at the night

before. At first we thought she was going to attack us; but she did not dare to do it and anchored between us and the shore, about a league from us. That night the pilots of our other ships came on board to consult with the admiral as to what was to be done.

"In the morning, just as day appeared, we sailed toward the vessel at anchor, passed very close to her, and would certainly have captured her, when we saw another vessel appear on the open sea. It was the French galley of which we had been in pursuit. Finding ourselves between these two vessels we decided to direct our course towards the galley, for the sake of deceiving them and



MAP OF ST. JOHN'S RIVER, FLORIDA

preventing them from attacking us. This bold movement having succeeded, we sought the river Seloy and port where we had the good fortune to find our galley and another vessel. Two companies of infantry now disembarked. They were well received by the Indians, who gave them a large house belonging to a chief and situated near the shore of a river. Immediately the two captains ordered an intrenchment to be built around this house, with a slope of earth and fascines [bundles of sticks], these being the

only means of defence possible in that country, where stones are nowhere to be found. Up to today we have disembarked twenty-four pieces of bronze guns of different calibers, of which the least weighed fifteen hundred-weight. Our fort [St. Augustine] is at a distance of about fifteen leagues from that of the enemy [Fort Caroline].

“On Saturday the general landed with many banners spread, to the sound of trumpets and salutes of artillery. As I had gone ashore the evening before, I took a cross and went to meet him, singing the *Te Deum laudamus*. The general marched up to the cross, followed by all who accompanied him, and there they all knelt and embraced the cross. A large number of Indians watched these proceedings and imitated all they saw done. The same day the general took formal possession of the country in the name of his Majesty, and all the captains took the oath of allegiance to him, as their general and governor of the country.

“The French number about as many as we do, and perhaps more. God and the Holy Virgin have performed another great miracle in our favor. A great hurricane came up, and was so severe that I think almost all the French vessels must have been lost; for they were assailed on the most dangerous part of the coast. Our general was very bold in all military matters, and a great enemy of the French. He immediately assembled his captains and planned an expedition to attack the French settlement and fort on the river; and in spite of the opinion of most of our men, and of my judgment and that of another priest, he ordered his plan to be carried out. Accordingly, on Monday he set out with 500 men, well provided with fire-arms and pikes, each soldier carrying with him a sack of bread and supply of wine for the journey. They also took with them two Indian chiefs, who were enemies of the French, to serve as guides.

“Our brave captain-general marched the whole distance until Tuesday evening, when they arrived within a quarter of a league of the enemy’s fort. On Thursday morning he went to attack the fort.

It appears the enemy did not perceive their approach until the very moment of the attack, as it was very early in the morning and had rained in torrents. The greater part of the soldiers of the fort were still in bed. Some arose in their shirts, and others, quite naked, begged for quarter; but in spite of that more than 140 were killed. The rest, numbering about 300, sealed the walls and either took refuge in the forest or on their ships floating in the river, so that in an hour's time the fort was in our possession without our having lost a single man or even had one wounded. Their vessel had been placed at the entrance of the bar to blockade the harbor, as they expected we would come by sea.

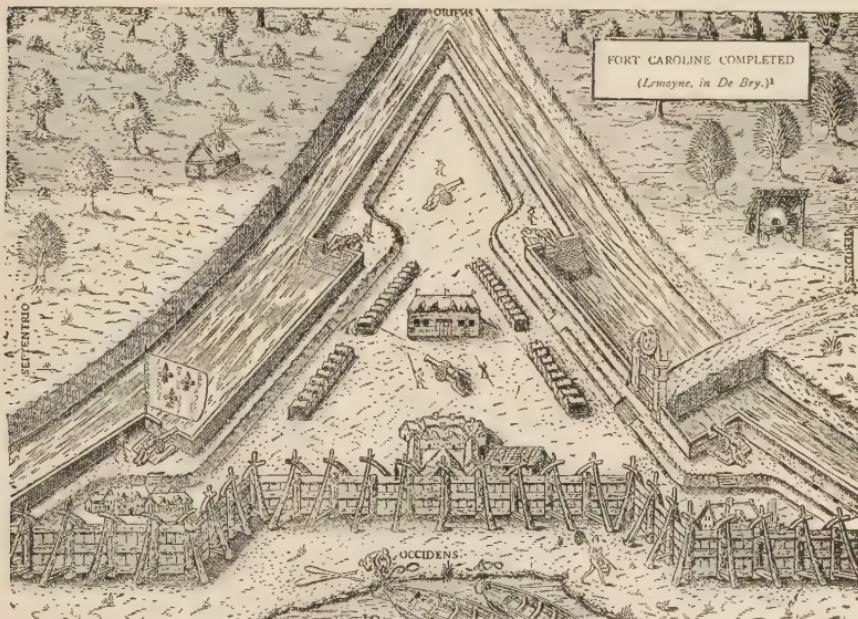
“The taking of this fort gained us many valuable objects, namely, 200 pikes, 120 helmets, a quantity of arquebuses and shields, a quantity of clothing, linen, fine cloths, 200 tons of flour, a good many barrels of biscuit, 200 bushels of wheat, three horses, six asses, hogs, tallow, books, a furnace, a flour-mill and many other things of little value. But the greatest advantage of this victory is certainly the triumph which our Lord has granted us, and which will be the means of the holy Gospel being introduced into this country, a thing necessary to prevent the loss of many souls.

“On Monday about nine o'clock in the morning the admiral came into port [of St. Augustine] with his frigate, and as soon as I recognized him I had the bells rung and great rejoicings made in the camp. An hour after he arrived we saw a man approaching with loud cries. I was the first to run to him and get the news. He embraced me with joy, crying, ‘Victory! Victory! The French fort is ours!’ At the vesper hour our captain-general landed with fifty foot-soldiers. He was very tired, as well as those who accompanied him. As soon as I learned that he was coming I ran to my room, put on a new cassock—the best I possessed—and a surplice; and taking a crucifix in my hand, I went a certain distance to receive him before he arrived; and he, like a gentleman and a Christian, knelt, as well as all those who came with him, and returned

a thousand thanks for the great favors he had received from God. My companions and I walked ahead, singing the *Te Deum laudamus* so that our meeting was one of greatest joy.''²⁷

THE FRENCH OFFICER AT FORT CAROLINE GIVES HIS ACCOUNT OF THE SPANISH ATTACK

While the Spanish were landing at St. Augustine the French officer at Fort Caroline, Laudonnière, and the commander of the French fleet, Ribaut, were consulting as to what should be done.



From Winsor's *Narrative and Critical History of America*
FORT CAROLINE

Laudonnière wished to strengthen and defend the fort with all the French forces. But Ribaut, who was his superior officer, decided to lead the French ships out upon the sea to fall upon the Spanish fleet there. The terrific storm which followed scattered his ships and left Fort Caroline at the mercy of the enemy. Then followed the overland attack, which Laudonnière describes as follows:

“Seeing myself in such danger I took a muster of the men which Captain Ribaut had left me, to see if there were any that lacked weapons. I found nine or ten of them, of whom not more than two or three had ever drawn sword out of scabbard, as I think. Of the nine, there were four young striplings who served Captain Ribaut and kept his dogs; the fifth was a cook. Among those that were outside the fort there was a carpenter threescore years old, one beer-brewer, one old crossbowmaker, two shoemakers, four or five men that had their wives, a player on the virginals [a musical instrument], four servants—about four score and five or six in all, counting servants and women and children. Behold the goodly troop so sufficient to defend themselves! Those that were left me of mine own company were about sixteen or seventeen that could bear arms, and all of them poor and lean; the rest were sick and maimed.

“This review being thus taken, we set our watch. The night of the 19th of September La Vigne kept watch with his company, although it rained without ceasing. When the day was come and he saw it rained still worse, he pitied the sentinels so muddied and wet; and thinking the Spaniards would not come in such a strange time, he let them depart. To tell the truth, he himself went into his lodging. In the meanwhile, a man who had something to do outside the fort, and my trumpeter, perceived a troop of Spaniards coming down from a little hill and began to cry alarm, which, as soon as I understood, I issued out with my shield and sword in my hand, and gat me in the midst of the court, where I began to call upon my soldiers. Some of the bolder men went toward the breach in the wall, which was on the south side, where they were repulsed and slain. As I went to aid those who were defending the breach, I met by chance a great company of Spaniards, who had already repulsed our men and were now entered, who drove me back into the court of the fort. This troop was led by a captain, whose name, I think, was Don Pedro Menéndez. These made certain pushes at me with their pikes, which lighted

on my shield. But perceiving that I was not able to withstand so great a company, and that the court was already won and their flags planted on the ramparts, and that I had only one man with me, I entered into the yard of my lodging, into which they followed me; and had it not been for a tent that was set up I should have been taken. But the Spaniards who followed me were occupied in cutting off the cords of the tent; and in the meanwhile I



*From Bryant & Gay's Popular History of U. S.
RESCUE OF LAUDONNIÈRE*

saved myself by the breach on the west side and got away into the woods, where I found certain of my men who had escaped, of whom three or four were sore hurt.

"Then spake I thus unto them, 'Sirs, since it hath pleased God that this mischance is happened unto us, we must needs get over the marshes unto the ships, which are at the mouth of the river.' I sent two of my men who could swim well unto the ships to tell them what had happened, and to send them word to come and help me. The men were not able that day to get to the ships, so I was compelled to stand in the water up to my shoulders all that night long, with one of my men who would never forsake me. The next morning, being scarcely able to draw my breath, I betook me to my prayers, with the soldier who was with me, for I felt myself so feeble that I was afraid I should die suddenly; and in truth if he had not embraced me in both his arms and so held me up, it had not been possible to save me. After we had made an end of our prayers, I heard the voice of one of the men I had sent over to the ships. Five or six of them took me and carried me into the shallop, for I was not able by any means to go on foot. After I was brought into the shallop, some of the mariners took their clothes from their backs to lend them to me, and would have carried me directly to their ships to give me a little brandy. But I would not go until I had first gone with the boat among the reeds to seek out the poor souls who were scattered abroad, where we gathered up eighteen or twenty of them. After we were all come to the ships, I comforted them as well as I could, and sent back the boat again to see if they could find any more."²⁸

QUESTIONS

1. What two important French voyages to America had been made before the settlement in Florida?
2. What reasons did Coligny have for making this settlement?
3. Did the Spanish king have a right to object to the settlement according to the ideas of the time? Explain.
4. In what respects do the Spanish and French accounts of the affair differ? How do you explain these differences?
5. What was the outcome of this episode? The story may be read in Parkman's interesting book, "Pioneers of France in the New World," Chapter 10.

ENGLISH SEAMEN STRIKE AT THE POWER OF SPAIN

So far in our main story the two most successful nations of Europe have been, first, Portugal, and then Spain. The Pope's gift of the eastern half of the world to Portugal had sent that nation around Africa to the East, where she long remained in power. Only Brazil in America fell into the Portuguese half of the world. This left most of the western lands to Spain, who proposed to keep all others away from them.

As yet the other nations of Europe had been too much disturbed by their religious and other troubles to think seriously of challenging Spain's power there. But the time had now come when her grip upon the western world was to be severely shaken, and her influence upon affairs in Europe greatly weakened. This was to be done by English seamen.

From the time of Henry VII these seamen had grown more numerous, more skillful and more daring. Henry VIII had been especially interested in shipping and in the protection of his island kingdom from hostile neighbors. He had been wise enough to encourage the shipwright, Fletcher of Rye, who first taught his sailors how to rig their sails fore and aft and so to tack against the wind—one of the greatest discoveries in seamanship. Henry also studied guns and ship gunnery, and made the beginnings of a powerful navy.

Meanwhile the sea-trade of Europe was rapidly growing and valuable cargoes were being carried in every direction. But law and order had not yet come upon the sea. Pirates had always flourished there and still continued to. The constant wars of the nations gave excuse and chance for large gains from the plundering of enemy merchant ships. Naturally enough, men who were constantly at war did not always stop their fighting during the brief peace times, and no very sharp line was drawn between lawful fighting and capture, and the kind that bordered on piracy. Even the monarchs were sometimes willing to annoy their enemies

while they hesitated to begin a costly war. It was in such times that the English seamen began to grow more confident of their skill, and more eager for the chance to capture and plunder the ships and seaports of their richest and greatest enemy.

This of course was Spain. All Europe knew of her immense territories in the New World, and of the great stores of gold and silver she had found there to spend upon her plans and wars at home. These wars had been waged largely against the Protestants of France and the Netherlands, and now, in the time of Elizabeth, English seamen were Protestants, like most Englishmen. English sailors and soldiers had been sent by Elizabeth to fight in these wars. Many had suffered at the hands of the Spaniards and were eager for revenge. All Protestant England had been angered at the Spanish plots to dethrone Elizabeth and restore the Catholic religion. Thus religious feeling combined with the hope of gain to urge the English seamen on to the assault of the galleons and seaports of New Spain.

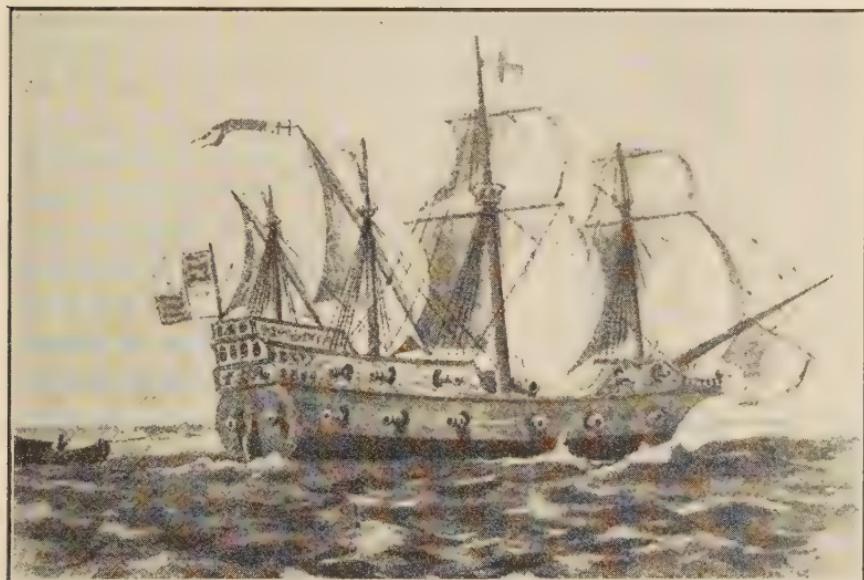
Of all the many exploits of the great Elizabethan seamen against the Spanish, perhaps the most striking is that of Francis Drake, who made the second voyage around the globe. When Elizabeth consulted Drake to learn his opinion of how the Spanish might best be annoyed and damaged, he said, "By way of the Indies." So Drake was sent away with the Queen's consent, apparently for Egypt. This was for the purpose of deceiving the Spanish agents in London, who were to be kept in the dark about Drake's real object. Elizabeth was not ready for open war with Spain. Even her great minister, Burleigh, was to be deceived, for he was having a hard time to keep the peace between the two nations. This part of the plan failed, for a Thomas Doughty told Burleigh the secret and then went aboard the fleet to stir up what mischief he could. You will see what happened to Doughty in the extracts which follow, taken from the narrative of a gentleman on board Drake's flagship, The Pelican, afterwards called The Golden Hind.

The Spanish were not deceived about Egypt, but they did not

suppose that Drake had the extraordinary plan in his mind of passing the terrible Strait of Magellan and of attacking their defenseless ships and seaports on the west coast of America. But this is precisely what he intended to do (see map, p. 280).

DRAKE'S VOYAGE 1577-1580

“The 15th day of November, in the year of our Lord 1577, Master Francis Drake, with a fleet of five ships and barks, and to the



From an old print

Keystone View Co.

DRAKE'S FLAGSHIP, THE PELICAN, RENAMED BY DRAKE THE GOLDEN HIND

She was of 100 tons burden and carried 18 guns besides some smaller pieces. The picture is from an old book published about eight years after the voyage was made.

number of 164 men, gentlemen and sailors, departed from Plymouth, giving out his pretended voyage for Alexandria.

“The 25th day of December we fell with Cape Cantin, upon the coast of Barbary; and coasting along, the 27th day we found an island called Mogador. The 17th day of January we arrived at Cape Blanco where we remained four days; and in that space our general mustered and trained his men on land in warlike manner,

to make them fit for all occasions. Being departed from these islands we drew towards the line, where we were becalmed the space of three weeks, but yet had great storms, terrible lightnings and much thunder. But with this misery we had great store of fish, as dolphins, bonitos and flying-fishes, whereof some fell into our ships and could not rise again for want of moisture, for when their wings are dry they cannot fly.

“From the first day of our departure from the islands of Cape Verde we sailed 54 days without sight of land. And the first land that we saw was the coast of Brazil, which we saw the 5th of April, in the height of 33 degrees towards the pole Antarctic. [Where is this?] From hence we went our course to 36 degrees and entered the great river of Plate, where we took water by the ship’s side. But our general finding here no good harbor, bare out again to sea the 27th of April. . . .

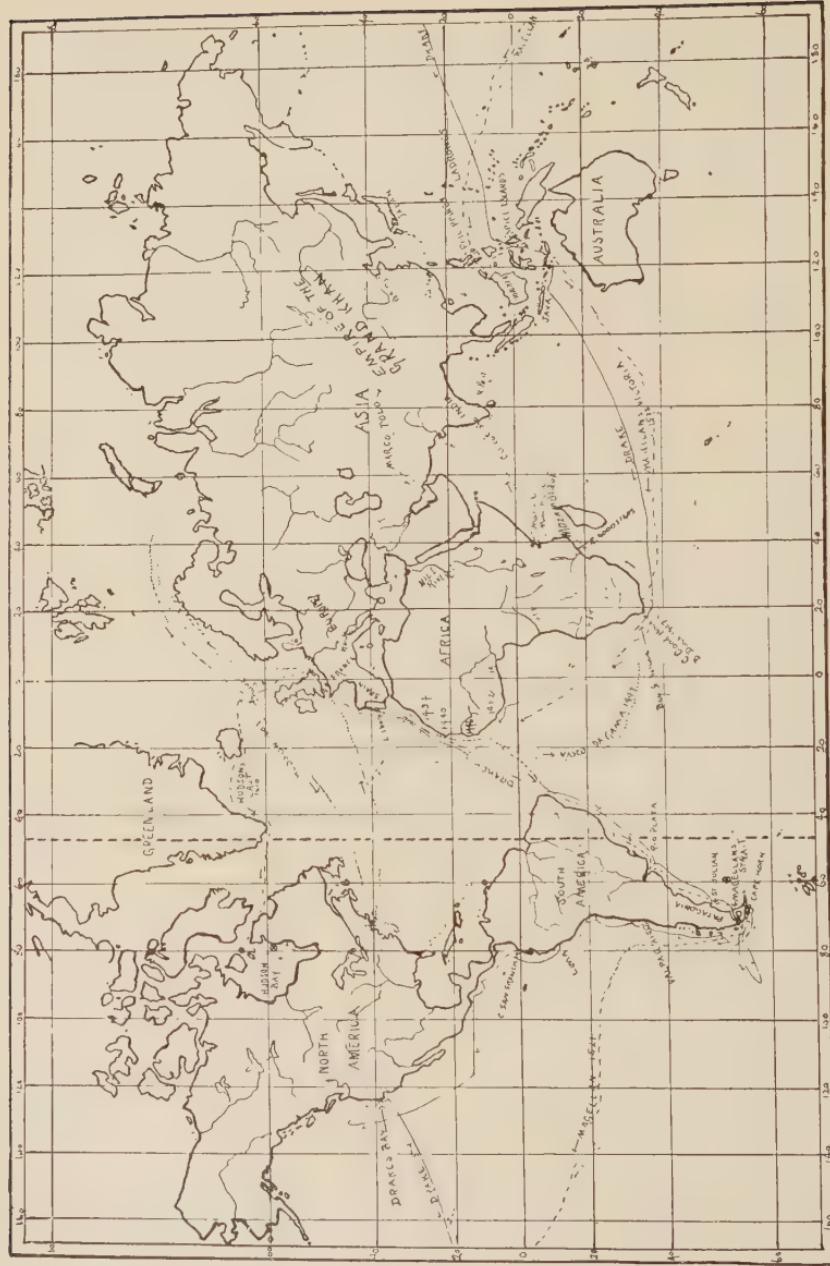
“The 20th of June we harbored ourselves again in a very good harbor, called by Magellan Port St. Julian, where we found a gibbet standing upon the main; which we supposed to be the place where Magellan put to death some of his disobedient and rebellious company. [How many years before?] In this port our general began to enquire diligently of the actions of Master Thomas Doughty, and found them tending to mutiny. Whereupon the company was called together and made acquainted with the particulars of the cause, which were found to be true. So that all things being done in good order, as near as might be to the course of our laws in England, it was concluded that Master Doughty should receive punishment. He desired before his death to receive the communion, which he did at the hands of Master Fletcher, our minister; and our general himself accompanied him in that holy action. Which being done, and the place of execution made ready, he having embraced our general and taken his leave of all the company, with prayers for the Queen’s Majesty and our realm, in quiet manner laid his head on the block, where he ended his life. This being done, our general made divers speeches to the whole company, urging us to unity, obedience, love, and regard for our

voyage; and willed every man the next Sunday following to prepare himself to receive communion as Christian brethren and friends ought to do. Which was done in a very reverent way; and so with good contentment every man went about his business.

“The squadron was now reduced to three ships, the Swan and the Christopher, as well as a Portuguese prize, having been condemned as unseaworthy, and burnt or abandoned.

“The 20th day we fell with the Strait of Magellan which goes into the South Sea, at the cape or headland whereof we found the body of a dead man whose flesh was completely wasted away. The 21st day we entered the strait. [Drake here changed the name of the Pelican to the Golden Hind.] We found many turnings, as if there were no passage at all. In this strait there be many fair harbors, with store of fresh water; yet the water there is of such depth that no man shall find ground to anchor in, except it be some narrow river or corner, or between some rocks; so that if any extreme blasts or contrary winds do come there is no small danger. The land on both sides is very huge and mountainous, reaching so high that below did appear three regions of clouds. These mountains are covered with snow. At both the southerly and easterly parts of the strait there are islands among which the sea enters. This strait is extremely cold, with frost and snow continually. Its breadth is in some places a league; in some other places two and three leagues, and in some other four leagues; but the narrowest place hath a league over.

“The 6th day of September we entered the South Sea. The 7th day we were driven by a great storm. [In this storm the Marigold went down with all hands.] The 15th day of September there was an eclipse of the moon at the hour of six of the clock at night. We were driven back to the southward of the straits in 56 degrees, in which height we came to an anchor among islands. The uttermost cape, or headland, of all these islands [later called Cape Horn] stands in 56 degrees, outside of which there is no mainland nor island to be seen to the southwards, but the Atlantic Ocean and the South Sea meet in a most large and free scope (see map, p. 280).



Map of the world showing the routes of Marco Polo, Da Gama, Magellan, Drake and Hudson. The heavy broken line in the Atlantic Ocean shows the Pope's division of the new parts of the world between Spain and Portugal.

“The 8th day of October we lost sight of one of our ships, the Elizabeth. The master, having lost sight of the Admiral, sailed home. [The Golden Hind was thus left to pursue her voyage alone.]

“Our general weighed anchor and set sail towards the coast of Chili. And drawing towards it we met near the shore an Indian in a canoe, who, thinking us to be Spaniards, came to us and told us that at a place called Santiago there was a great Spanish ship laden from the kingdom of Peru; for which good news our general gave him divers trifles. Whereof he was glad and went along with us and brought us to the place, which is called the port of Valparaiso. When we came thither we found, indeed, the ship riding at anchor, having in her eight Spaniards and three Negroes; who, thinking us to be Spaniards and their friends, welcomed us with a drum, and made ready a jar of wine of Chili to drink to us. But we stowed them under hatches, all save one Spaniard, who suddenly leaped overboard into the sea, and swam ashore to the town of Santiago to give them warning of our arrival. They of the town, being not above nine households, presently fled away and abandoned the town. Our general manned his boat and the Spanish ship’s boat, and went to the town; and being come to it we rifled it, and came to a small chapel, which we entered, and found therein a silver chalice, two cruets and one altar-cloth, the spoil whereof our general gave to Master Fletcher, his minister.

“When we were at sea our general rifled the ship and found in her good store of the wine of Chili, and 25,000 pesos of very pure and fine gold of Valdivia. So, going on our course, we arrived next at a place called Coquimbo, where our general sent fourteen of his men on land to fetch water. But they were espied by the Spaniards who came with 300 horsemen and 200 footmen, and slew one of our men with a piece [a gun]. The rest came aboard with safety, and the Spaniards departed. We went on shore again and buried our man, and the Spaniards came down again with a flag of truce; but we set sail and would not trust them. From hence we went to a certain port called Tarapaca; where, being landed, we found by the seaside a Spaniard lying asleep, who had lying

by him thirteen bars of silver. We took the silver and left the man. Not far from hence, going on land for fresh water, we met with a Spaniard and an Indian boy driving eight llamas or sheep of Peru, which are as big as asses; every one of which had on his back two bags of leather, each bag containing 50 lb. weight of fine silver. So that, bringing both the sheep and their burden to the ships, we found in all the bags 800 weight of silver.

“To Lima we came the 13th of February; and being entered the haven, we found there about twelve sail of ships lying fast moored at an anchor, having all their sails carried on shore; for the masters and merchants here felt most secure, having never been assaulted by enemies. Our general rifled these ships and found in one of them a chest full of reals of plate [Spanish coins] and good store of silks and linen cloth. In which ship he had news of another ship called the Cacafuego which was gone towards Payta. Our general promised our company that whosoever should first see her should have his chain of gold for the good news.

“It happened that John Drake, going up into the top, saw her about three of the clock. And about six of the clock we came to her and boarded her, and shot at her three pieces of ordnance and struck down her mizzen; and being entered, we found in her great riches, as jewels and precious stones, thirteen chests full of reals of plate, fourscore pound weight of gold, and six-and-twentyton of silver. The place where we took this prize was called Cape of San Francisco. When our general had done what he would with this Cacafuego, he cast her off and we went on our course still toward the west; and not long after met with a ship laden with linen cloth and fine China dishes of white earth and great store of China silks, of all which things we took as we pleased. The owner himself of this ship was in her, who was a Spanish gentleman.”

WHAT THIS SPANISH GENTLEMAN HAD TO SAY OF DRAKE AND THE GOLDEN HIND

The general of the Englishman must be a man of about thirty-five years, short, with a ruddy beard, one of the greatest mariners there are on the sea, alike for his skill and his power of command. His ship is a

galleon of about four hundred tons [see p. 277], a very fast sailer, and there are aboard her a hundred men, all skilled hands and of war-like age, and all well trained. Every one is specially careful to keep his arquebus clean. He treats them with affection, and they him with respect. He carries with him nine or ten gentlemen, cadets of high families in England. These are members of his council, and he calls them together upon all occasions, however simple, and although he takes counsel from no one he is pleased to hear their opinions before issuing his orders. He has no favorite. These of whom I speak are



Courtesy of Extension Division, University of California
DRAKE'S CAPTURE OF THE SPANISH GALLEON

admitted to his table, as well as a Portuguese pilot whom he brought from England. He is served with much plate with gilt borders and tops and engraved with his arms, and has all possible kinds of delicacies and scents, many of which he says the Queen gave him. None of the gentlemen sit or cover in his presence, without first being ordered once and even several times.

The galleon carries about thirty pieces of heavy ordnance and a great deal of ammunition and other necessaries. They dine and sup to the

music of violins; and he carries all the appliances of carpenters and calkers, so as to careen his ship when there is occasion. His ship is not only of the latest type, but sheathed. I understand that all the men he carries are paid, because when they plundered our ship nobody dared take anything without his orders. He keeps very strict discipline and punishes the slightest fault. He has painters too, who sketch all the coast in proper colors. This troubled me to see most of all, because it was so true to nature that whosoever follows him can by no means lose his way.

AT DRAKE'S BAY, ABOUT THIRTY-FIVE MILES NORTH OF
THE HARBOR OF SAN FRANCISCO

“The 5th of June, being 43 degrees towards the pole Arctic, we found the air so cold that the men complained, and the further we went the more the cold increased upon us. Whereupon we thought it best for that time to seek the land, and did so; finding it not mountainous but low plain land, till we came within 38 degrees toward the line. In which height it pleased God to send us in a fair and good bay, with a good wind to enter the same. In this bay we anchored; and the people of the country, having their houses close by the water’s side, showed themselves unto us, and sent a present to our general. When they came to us they greatly wondered at the things we brought.

“The news of our being there spread through the country; the people that inhabited round about came down, and amongst them the king himself, a man of goodly stature and fine appearance, with many other tall and warlike men. The common sort of people scattered themselves among our people, and to such as pleased their fancy (which were the youngest) they offered their sacrifices unto them, weeping, scratching and tearing their flesh from their faces with their nails, from which flowed much blood. But we used signs to them of disliking this, and stayed their hands by force, and directed them towards the living God whom only they ought to worship. They could not be long absent from us, but daily visited us to the hour of our departure, which seemed so grievous unto them, that their joy was turned into sorrow.

“Our general called this country New Albion, and that for two reasons—the one because of the white banks and cliffs which lie towards the sea [like those of Albion, that is, England]; and the other because it might have some likeness with our country in name, which sometimes is so called. There is no part of earth here to be taken up wherein there is not some probable snow of gold or silver. At our departure our general set up a monument of our being there, as also of her Majesty’s right and title to the same.

“The 23rd of July the people of the country took a sorrowful farewell of us. Being loth to leave us, they presently ran to the top of the hills to keep us in their sight as long as they could, making fires before and behind and on each side of them, burning therein (as we supposed) sacrifices at our departure. Not far from this island did lie certain islands [the Farallones, off the Bay of San Francisco], having on them great store of seals and birds, with one of which we fell July 24th, whereon we found such provision as might well serve our turn for a while. We departed again the next day following.

“And our general now considering that the extreme cold not only continued, but increased, the sun being gone farther from us [how?], and that the wind blowing still from the northwest, cut off all hope of finding a passage through these northern parts, thought it necessary to lose no time; and therefore with general consent of all bent his course directly to the islands of the Moluccas. And so having nothing in our view but air and sea, without sight of land for the space of full 68 days together, we continued our course through the main ocean till September 30th following, on which day we fell in with certain islands, lying about eight degrees to the northward of the line.”

THE END OF THE VOYAGE

“From Java Major we sailed for the Cape of Good Hope, which was the first land we fell withal; neither did we touch it or any other land until we came to Sierra Leon, upon the coast of Guinea. Notwithstanding we ran hard aboard the cape, we found

the report of the Portuguese to be most false, who say that it is the most dangerous cape of the world, never without storms and present danger to travellers who come near it. This cape is a most stately thing, and the fairest cape we saw in the whole circumference of the earth, and we passed by it the 18th of June. From thence we continued our course to Sierra Leona, where we arrived 22nd of July, and found necessary provisions, great store of elephants, oysters upon the trees of one kind [the mangrove] spawning and increasing infinitely, the oyster suffering no bud to grow. We departed thence the four and twentieth day. We arrived in England the third of November, 1580 being the third year of our departure.”²⁹

The return of the Golden Hind with its precious cargo of plunder caused a wonderful stir in England, for no one knew what had become of her and all manner of rumors had been flying about. The Spanish ambassador was furious. Elizabeth hardly knew whether to approve Drake’s conduct or to punish him for it. At last she decided to take her share of the plunder and to defy the Spanish king. She was magnificently received on the Golden Hind where with much ceremony Drake was made a knight.

QUESTIONS

1. What was the purpose of Drake’s expedition? Why was it regarded as a good plan?
2. Why was Queen Elizabeth willing to support Drake when she would not declare war against Spain?
3. Why was the real object of the expedition to be a secret? Why was it necessary to deceive the Queen’s minister?
4. Did Drake intend to make a voyage around the world when he started? When did he decide to?
5. How would the voyage of Drake be regarded by the Spanish king? How would he feel about Drake’s setting up English claims at New Albion? Who had laid claim to this region for Spain?
6. Did Drake see the harbor of San Franciseo?
7. Show the route taken by Drake on your outline map.

Drawing by Sir John Gilbert

ELIZABETH KNIGHTING DRAKE ON BOARD THE GOLDEN HIND

Keystone View Co.



RAIDING THE SPANISH SEAPORTS

Drake's raid on the Spanish by way of Magellan's Strait was neither his first nor his last visit to America. At the age of twenty-two he had been captain of a small ship in the squadron of John Hawkins, a famous English sea-dog of the time. Driven by storms into the port on the Mexican coast opposite the City of Mexico, the squadron was attacked by a Spanish fleet and all but destroyed. Only two of the English ships escaped, one of which was Drake's. Drake returned to Plymouth vowing vengeance on the Spanish nation.

In the next three years Drake made three voyages to the West Indies, raiding Spanish towns and capturing Spanish treasure. On the third of these voyages he caught a glimpse of the Pacific from a mountain top in Central America, and he then resolved to lead an English fleet into that as yet undisturbed Spanish sea.

After his return from the voyage around the globe, when Elizabeth had decided to fight the Spaniards openly, Drake was sent to raid the Spanish towns of the West Indies. On the opposite page an American artist pictures Drake's attack on Santo Domingo, the oldest town there. On his way home he destroyed the Spanish settlement at St. Augustine, Florida, and picked up a band of discouraged English colonists at Roanoke Island on the Carolina coast. We shall tell of this settlement presently.

The next year, with twenty-three ships, Drake boldly entered Cadiz, a seaport of Spain, and destroyed thirty-seven vessels and their cargoes. Taking up a position off Sagres, where 125 years before Prince Henry the Navigator had lived and studied, he caught many Spanish vessels, including a rich galleon from the East Indies. Thus Drake "singed the king of Spain's beard," and made his name a terror to all enemies of England on the sea.

From all this it appears how seriously English seamen were hurting the sea-trade and damaging the colonies of Spain, and how much was at stake in the control of the sea. We shall now see how the great contest between the two nations was brought to its climax.



By Howard Pyle

Keystone View Co.

DRAKE'S ATTACK ON SANTO DOMINGO

THE GREAT BATTLE FOR THE CONTROL OF THE SEA: THE DEFEAT OF THE SPANISH ARMADA, 1588

The Spanish king now realized that the time had come for the final test of strength between the two nations. His plan was to send an immense fleet to Flanders, where a powerful army was waiting to be carried across the English Channel to make the Spanish king master of all England. He was now king of Portugal as well, and had the Portuguese navy to add to his own. Drake harried and damaged his shipping and seaports as much as he could, but at last the expedition set out.

It was the greatest naval expedition Europe had ever seen. There were 130 vessels manned by 8000 sailors, and more than twice as many soldiers for the land attack. Altogether the ships carried 30,000 men, with great quantities of stores and equipment.

But the expedition was destined to be a gigantic failure. The Spanish vessels were old-fashioned, heavy and cumbersome, cluttered with useless soldiers and poorly trained sailors. Their guns were feeble and badly handled, their seamanship and management inferior. From all the ports of England the lighter and swifter ships of England hurried to offer their services to the navy under the direction of distinguished captains like Drake and Hawkins. All their years of experience on the seas, the better methods of ship-building, seamanship and gunnery fostered by their sovereigns were now to count in favor of the English seamen. For a week the terrific conflict raged along the Channel, always to the advantage of the English. The Spanish fleet was scattered by a storm and driven around the north of Scotland. Spain received a blow from which she never recovered, and England in time rose to the commanding position on the seas. The way was now cleared for an English settlement of America.

Following are parts of three letters written by officers with the English fleet to the Queen or the Government, telling of the coming of the Spanish fleet; then a narrative of a young courtier, Robert Carey. Hearing the news of the arrival of the fleet Carey

hurried away from Court to take part in the fighting, and after the crisis was passed returned to Court, all within twelve days. Following this narrative is a story of a Spanish captain whose galleon was wrecked on the coast of Ireland.

NEWS OF THE SPANISH FLEET

From a letter of Drake to the Queen:

April 28th.

Most gracious Sovereign: Since my last despatch to the Court, I have in three different ways received information that the enemy continueth his preparations very mightily. The first report cometh by a man of Dartmouth who very lately came from St. Malo, and saith that he heard that their fleet is in number between four and five hundred sail, ready furnished with seventy or eighty thousand soldiers and mariners; and that to better encourage them the wages of all the companies has been paid. . . .

From a letter of Howard, the English admiral:

July 6th.

Sir: I have divided the fleet into three parts, and yet we lie within sight of one another, so that if any one of us do discover the Spanish fleet, we may give notice thereof one to the other, and thereupon at once assemble together. I myself do lie in the middle of the Channel, with the greatest force. Sir Francis Drake hath twenty ships and four or five pinnaces [small sailing vessels], which lie toward Ushant; and Mr. Hawkins, with as many more, lieth toward Scilly. This we must do, else with this wind the enemy might pass by and we never the wiser. . . . For my part I believe their intent is for Ireland. . . .

From a letter of the English admiral:

July 21st.

Sir: Upon Friday, at Plymouth, I received word that there was a great number of ships seen off the Lizard, whereupon, although the wind was very scant, we first warped out of harbor that night, and upon Saturday sailed out with great difficulty, the wind being at southwest. About three of the clock in the afternoon we saw the Spanish fleet, and did what we could to work for the wind, which by this morning we had recovered, finding their fleet to consist of 120 sail, whereof there are 4 galleasses and many ships of great burden.

At nine of the clock we gave them fight, which continued until one.

Painting by Seymour Lucas

NEWS OF THE ARRIVAL OF THE ARMADA

W. F. M. *Minelli*

A publican, calling into Plymouth harbor with the arrival of news of the Armada's arrival, The English fleet was in danger of being trapped to, history records, but Drake refused to give up, and was willing to give up his life to give up the Armada too. "There is time," he said, "to finish the game and beat the Spaniards too." With great labor the fleet was warped out of the harbor during the night against a heavy wind.



In this fight we made some of them wait to stop their leaks; although we dare not put in among them, their fleet being so strong. But there shall be nothing either neglected or untried that may work their overthrow.

THE BATTLES IN THE CHANNEL

From the narrative of Robert Carey:

“Upon the news sent to Court from Plymouth of their certain arrival, my Lord Cumberland and myself took post-horse and rode straight to Portsmouth where we found a frigate that carried us to sea. Having sought for the fleets a whole day, the night following we fell amongst them, where it was our fortune to light first upon the Spanish fleet. Finding ourselves in the wrong we tacked about and in short time got to our own fleet, which was not far from the other. At our coming aboard the Admiral’s ship we stayed there a while; but finding her much pestered and scant of cabins, we left the Admiral and went aboard Captain Reyman’s, where we stayed and were very welcome and much made of.

“It was on Thursday that we came to the fleet. All that day we followed close the Spanish Armada and nothing was attempted on either side. The same course we held all Friday and Saturday, by which time the Spanish fleet cast anchor just before Calais. We likewise did the same, a very small distance behind them, and so continued till Monday morning about two of the clock. In this time our council of war had provided six old hulks and stuffed them full of all matter fit for burning, and on Monday at two in the morning they were let loose, with each of them a man in her to direct her. The tide serving, the men brought them very near to the Spanish fleet, so that they could not miss to come in the midst of them; then they set fire on them and came off themselves, having each of them a little boat to bring him off. The ships set on fire came so directly to the Spanish fleet they had no time to avoid them but to cut all their hawsers and so escape; and their haste was such that they left one of their four great galleasses on ground before Calais, which our men took and had the spoil of,

where many of the Spaniards were slain with the governor thereof, but most of them were saved by wading ashore to Calais.

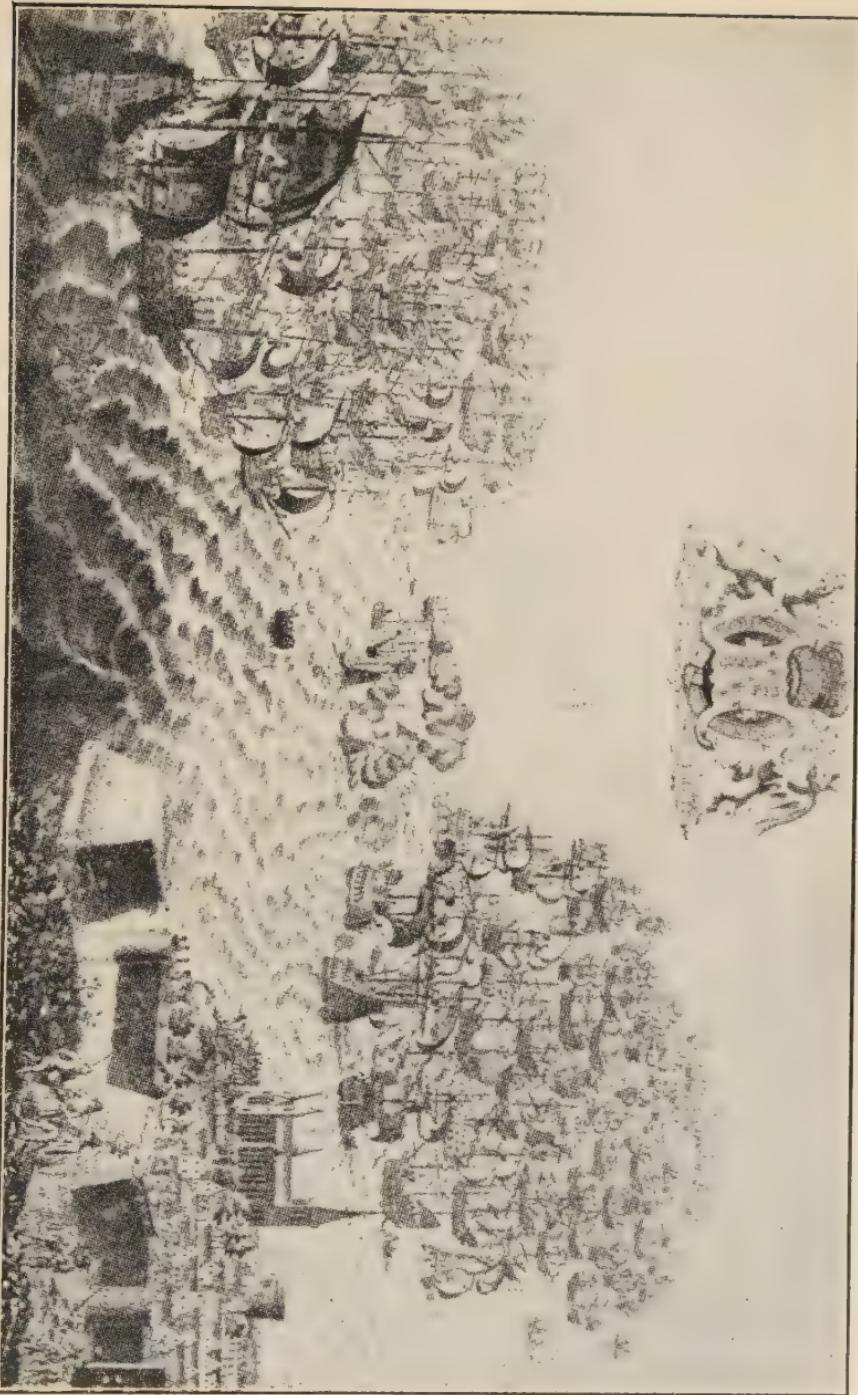
"They being in this disorder we made ready to follow them, where began a cruel fight; and we had such advantage both of wind and tide that we had a glorious day of them, continuing the fight from four o'clock in the morning till almost five or six at night. They lost a dozen or fourteen of their best ships—some



Painting by Seymour Lucas

DRAKE RECEIVES THE SURRENDER OF A SPANISH WARSHIP

sunk, and the rest run ashore to keep themselves from sinking. After God had given us this great victory, they made all the haste they could away, and we followed them Tuesday and Wednesday, by which time they were gotten as far as Flamboroughhead. It was resolved on Wednesday at night that by four o'clock on Thursday we should have a new fight with them for a farewell; but by two in the morning there was a flag of council hung out in our Vice-Admiral, when it was found that in the whole fleet



THE ENGLISH FIRESHIPS SCATTERING THE ARMADA BEFORE CALAIS

From the tapestry hangings of the House of Lords

there was not enough munition [powder and shot] to make half a fight ; and therefore it was concluded that we should let them pass and our fleet to return to the Downs.

“The night we parted with them we had a mighty storm. Our fleet cast anchor and endured it ; but the Spanish fleet, lacking their anchors, were many of them cast ashore on the west of Ireland, where they all had their throats cut by the Kerns, and some of them on Scotland, where they were no better used ; and the rest (with much ado) got into Spain again. Thus did God bless us and give victory over this powerful navy ; the sea calmed, and all our ships came to the Downs on Friday in safety.

“On Saturday my Lord of Cumberland and myself came on shore, and took post-horse and found the Queen in her army at Tilbury camp, where I fell sick of a burning fever and was carried in a litter to London.”³⁰

THE STORY OF THE SPANISH CAPTAIN

Captain Cueller’s galleon was wrecked on the west coast of Ireland. Ireland had been conquered by the English and the Irish people disliked them accordingly. Some of the Irish chiefs were friendly to the Spanish because Spain was the enemy of England.

“Don Martin Cuellar had anchored in Sligo Bay in a heavy sea with two other galleons. There they lay for four days when the gale rising their cables parted, and all three drove on shore on a sandy beach among the rocks. Two of the galleons went to pieces in an hour. The soldiers and sailors, too weak to struggle, were most of them rolled in the surf till they were dead and then washed up on the beach. Gentlemen and servants, nobles and common seamen, shared the same fate. Cuellar’s ship had broken in two, but the forecastle held together a little longer than the rest, and Cuellar, clinging to it, watched his comrades being swept away and destroyed before his eyes. His own turn came at last. He held on to the wreck till it was swept away, and he found himself in the water with a brother officer who had stuffed his pockets full of gold. He could not swim but he caught a board as

it floated by him and climbed up upon it. His companion tried to follow but was washed off and drowned. Cuellar a few minutes later was tossed ashore, his leg badly cut by a blow from a spar in the surf. Drenched and bleeding as he was, he looked a miserable figure. The Irish who were plundering took no notice of him. He crawled along till he found a number of his countrymen who had been left bare to their skins, and huddled together for warmth. Cuellar, who had still his clothes, though of course drenched, lay down among some rushes. Two Irishmen came by with axes who, to Cuellar's surprise, cut some bushes, which they threw over them for a covering, and went on to join in the plundering on the shore. Cuellar, half dead from cold and hunger, fell asleep. He was waked by a troop of English horsemen galloping by for a share in the spoil. Something like a monastery was visible not far off. Cuellar limped along till he reached it. He found it deserted. The roof of the chapel had been lately burnt. Twelve Spaniards were hanging from the rafters. The monks had fled to the mountains.

“Sick at heart he crept along a path through a wood, when he came upon an old woman who was hiding her cattle from the English. Her cabin was not far distant, but she made signs for him to keep off, as there were enemies there. Wandering on he fell in with two of his countrymen, naked and shivering. They were all famished, and they went back together to the sea, hoping to find some fragments of food washed on land. While they were thus employed a party of Irish came up, who pointed to a cluster of cabins and said if they went there they would be well taken care of. Cuellar was very lame. His companions left him. At the first cottage he reached there was an old Irishman, an Englishman, a Frenchman and a girl. The Englishman struck at him with a knife and gave him a second wound. They stripped him to his shirt, took a gold chain from him, which they found concealed under it, and a purse of ducats. The Frenchman proved to be an old sailor. In him the Spanish captain found some human kindness, for he bound up his leg for him and gave him some oatcakes

with butter and milk. The Frenchman then pointed to a ridge of distant mountains. There, he said, was the country of the O'Rourke, a great chief, who was a friend of the king of Spain. O'Rourke would take care of him; many of his comrades had already gone there for protection.



CRUISE OF THE ARMADA

Wrecks of the Spanish ships are indicated by crosses. (After a chart in Stevens and Westcott's "History of Sea Power," by permission of George H. Doran Co.)

come and prayed God to finish with him and take him to His mercy. Forlorn as he was, however, he rallied his courage, picked up a piece of old matting, and with this and some plaited ferns managed to cover himself. Thus dressed he went on to a village at the side of a lake. The hovels of which it consisted were all empty. He entered the best looking of them and found some oat-straw, and was looking about for a place to sleep among them, when three

"With his strength somewhat restored by the food, Cuellar crawled along, stick in hand. At night he stopped at a hut, where there was a lad who could speak Latin. This boy talked with him, gave him supper and a bundle of straw to sleep upon. About midnight the boy's father and brother came in, loaded with plunder from the wrecks. They, too, did him no hurt, and sent him forward in the morning with a pony and a guide. English soldiers were about, sent, as he guessed, to kill all the Spaniards they could fall in with. The first party that he met did not see him. With the second he was less fortunate. They beat him and took the last of his garments that had been left. The boy and pony went off and he thought then that the end had

naked figures sprang suddenly up. He took them for devils, and in his strange dress they thought the same of him; but they proved to have belonged to the wrecked galleons—one of them a naval officer, the other two soldiers. They explained to one another who they were, and then buried themselves in the oat-straw and slept. They remained there all the next day. At night, having wrapped themselves in straw, they walked on until they reached the land of the chief to whom they had been directed. O'Rourke himself was absent “fighting the English,” but his wife took them in, fed them, and allowed them to stay. A report reached him that a Spanish ship had put in to a nearby harbor and was about to sail. He hurried down to join her but she was gone. He learned afterwards that she had been wrecked and that all on board had perished.

“He was now like a hunted wolf. The English officer had given orders that every Spaniard in the country must be given up to the Government. The Irish did not give up Cuellar, but they did not care to risk their necks by giving him shelter, and he wandered about through the winter, meeting with many strange adventures. His first friend was a poor priest. From this man he met with help. He worked next with a blacksmith, whose wife was a brute. The priest took him from these people and carried him to a castle, and here for the first time he met with hearty Irish hospitality. The owner of the castle was a gentleman. He recognized a friend in every enemy of England. He took Cuellar into his troop of retainers. For some weeks he was now permitted to rest and recover himself, and he spent the time in learning the manners of the people.

“Cuellar, however, was longing for home. He supposed that if he could reach Scotland he could cross easily from thence to Flanders. One night after Christmas he slipped away and made for Antrim, travelling, seemingly, only in the dark and hiding during the day. He was in constant danger. He was afraid to approach a port lest he should be seized and hanged. For six weeks he was hid away by some women, and after that by a

bishop. This bishop had a dozen Spaniards with him, fed, clothed, and said Mass for them, and at last found a boat to carry them across the Channel. They went and, after a three days' struggle with the sea, contrived to land in Scotland. The Spanish general in Flanders was informed of their condition, and agreed with a Flemish merchant to bring over all the Spaniards, now numerous, who were on Scotch soil, at five ducats a head. In their passage they were chased and fired upon by a Dutch frigate. They had to run ashore, where they were caught by the Hollanders, and all but Cuellar and two of his companions were killed. So ends the Spanish captain's story.”³¹

QUESTIONS

1. What were some of the reasons for the great quarrel between England and Spain?
2. Why was Spain's quarrel with England rather than with France or Holland?
3. Why is the defeat of the Spanish Armada regarded of such importance in the history of America?
4. What were some of the principal reasons for the success of the English?
5. Who were some of English commanders? Who is regarded as the greatest of these and why?

SIR WALTER RALEIGH TRIES TO MAKE A NEW ENGLAND IN AMERICA, 1584-1590

The time has now come to tell something of the very first English colonies. These were failures, but they are worth knowing about because they afterwards led to the founding of Virginia, and Virginia was the first English settlement that lasted.

Our story about Sir Francis Drake showed that the power of Spain was weakening and that she was no longer able to prevent other nations from sharing the New World with her. Now as the power of Spain declined, Englishmen began to recall the claims set up by the voyages of John Cabot, and to think about a new England in America. The two men who taught their country to think about these things were the half-brothers Humphrey Gilbert and Walter Ralegh. Both belonged to the group of able men Queen Elizabeth had gathered about her to help her govern England. Gilbert led an expedition to Newfoundland, but went down with the little ship Squirrel on the return voyage (see picture on next page). Thereafter Ralegh took up the idea of the English settlement of America and devoted his life to it. It was the great passion of this remarkable man's career. He was sure the power of Spain was weakening, and that England could take her place as mistress of the sea, perhaps of the New World.

After leaving the University Ralegh had fought with the Protestants in France and Holland, and soon won the favor of the Queen. From her he received great trading rights in England which brought him wealth and power. Much of his wealth he gladly spent in sending out expeditions to America. Because Newfoundland had been found so cold and discouraging, he sent an exploring expedition farther down the Atlantic Coast. This expedition returned to England with glowing accounts of the country, which was named Virginia after the Queen. Ralegh decided to make a settlement there. So in 1585 a party was sent over under Ralph Lane, which made a settlement and built a fort on Roanoke Island (see map, p. 320). But the next year Francis Drake, who was sailing by on his way home from one of his



Victor Animatograph Co.

THE END OF SIR HUMPHREY GILBERT

The expedition had been a failure and the two remaining ships were returning to England. The Squirrel was hardly larger than a sailboat, top-heavy with guns and stores. Gilbert was a soldier. The sailors had hinted that he was afraid of the sea, so he refused to sail in the larger vessel and remained in the Squirrel. Here is the account of what happened, by a man in the larger ship:

“By the time we had brought the islands of the Azores south of us, we met with very foul weather and terrible seas, breaking short and high, pyramid-like. Monday in the afternoon the frigate [Squirrel] was near cast away; yet at that time recovered, and giving forth signs of joy, the General, sitting abaft with a book in his hand, cried out to us—as oft as we did approach within hearing—‘We are as near to heaven by sea as by land,’ well beseeming a soldier resolute in Jesus Christ, as I can testify he was.

“The same Monday night, about twelve of the clock, the frigate being ahead of us, suddenly her lights were out, and our watch cried that the General was cast away, which was too true; for in that moment the frigate was devoured and swallowed up of the sea.”³²

plundering voyages against the Spanish, picked up the discouraged colonists and took them with him. They should have remained a little longer, for several ships with an abundance of supplies for them were already on the way, and arrived soon after their departure. In order to hold the land for England, Sir Richard Grenville, the commander of these ships, left fifteen men on the island when he returned to England.

In spite of all these discouragements Ralegh determined to try once more. This time he sent over three ships with men, women and children, in charge of John White as Governor. Let us now read what John White had to tell about this voyage. He speaks of himself as "the Governor":

"The two and twentieth of July we arrived safe and our ship and pinnace anchored. The Governor went aboard the pinnace with forty of his best men, intending to pass up to Roanoke forthwith, hoping there to find those fifteen Englishmen which Sir Richard Grenville had left there the year before. After he had done so he meant to return again to the fleet and pass along the coast to the Bay of Chesapeake, where we intended to make our settlement and fort, according to the charge given us by Sir Walter Ralegh. But as soon as we put off in our pinnace, the master of the ship called to the sailors in the pinnace, charging them not to bring any of the planters [colonists] back again, but to leave them on the island, excepting the Governor and two or three others, saying that the summer was so far spent that he would land the planters in no other place. All the sailors, both in the pinnace and ship, agreed to this, and the Governor could do no good by objecting.

"We passed to Roanoke, and the same night at sunset went ashore on the island, in the place where our fifteen men were left; but we found none of them, nor any signs that they had been there, except the bones of one whom the savages had slain.

"The three and twentieth of July, the Governor with others of his company walked to the north end of the island, where Master Ralph Lane had built his fort, with several necessary and decent

dwelling-houses made by his men the year before, where we hoped to find some signs of our fifteen men. When we came there, we found the fort pulled down, but all the houses standing unhurt, except that the lower rooms of them, and also of the fort, were overgrown with melons of different sorts, and deer within them feeding on those melons; so we returned to our company without hope of ever seeing any of the fifteen men living.

"The 25th, our flyboat and the rest of our planters arrived all safe from England, to the great joy of the whole company.

"The 28th, George Howe was slain by some savages. They espied him wading in the water alone catching crabs, almost naked, without any weapon save only a small forked stick.

"On the 30th of July Master Stafford and twenty of our men passed by water to the island of Croatoan, where we hoped to learn some news of our fifteen men, but especially to renew our old friendship with the Indians. We learned from them of Croatoan how the fifteen Englishmen left at Roanoke the year before were suddenly set upon by thirty hostile Indians. The Indians had placed themselves secretly behind the trees, near the houses where our men carelessly lived, and called to them by friendly signs. Wherefore two of our Englishmen went gladly to them; but while one of those savages embraced one of our men, the other with his sword of wood which he had hidden under his mantle, struck him on the head and slew him; and presently the other eight and twenty savages showed themselves.

"The other Englishman, perceiving this, fled back to the company, whom the savages pursued with their bows and arrows so fast that the Englishmen were forced to take to the house wherein all their victuals and weapons were; but the savages forthwith set this house on fire, so that our men were forced to take up such weapons as came first to hand and without order to run forth among the savages, with whom they fought above an hour. In this skirmish another of our men was shot in the mouth with an arrow, whereof he died presently.

"The place where they fought was of great advantage to the

savages by means of the thick trees, behind which the savages, through their nimbleness, defended themselves, and so vexed our men with their arrows that our men, being some of them hurt, retired fighting to the water-side, where their boat lay, with which they fled. By the time they had rowed but a quarter of a mile they espied their four comrades coming from a creek where they had been to fetch oysters. These four they received into their boat, leaving Roanoke, and landed on a little island on the right hand of our entrance into the harbor, where they remained awhile, but afterward departed, whither as yet we know not.

“The 18th, Eleanor, daughter of the Governor, and wife of Ananias Dare, gave birth to a daughter in Roanoke, and the child was christened there the Sunday following; and because this child was the first Christian born in Virginia, she was named Virginia. By this time our ships had unloaded the goods and victuals of the planters, and began to take in wood and fresh water, and to new-calk and trim them for England. The planters also prepared their letters and tokens to send back to England.

“The next day, the 22nd of August, the whole company came to the Governor and with one voice requested him to return to England quickly to obtain supplies and other necessaries for them; but he refused. The Governor being at last persuaded to return to England, having but half a day to prepare himself, departed from Roanoke the seven and twentieth day of August. The next day both the ships weighed anchor and set sail for England.”³³

THE SEARCH FOR THE LOST COLONY

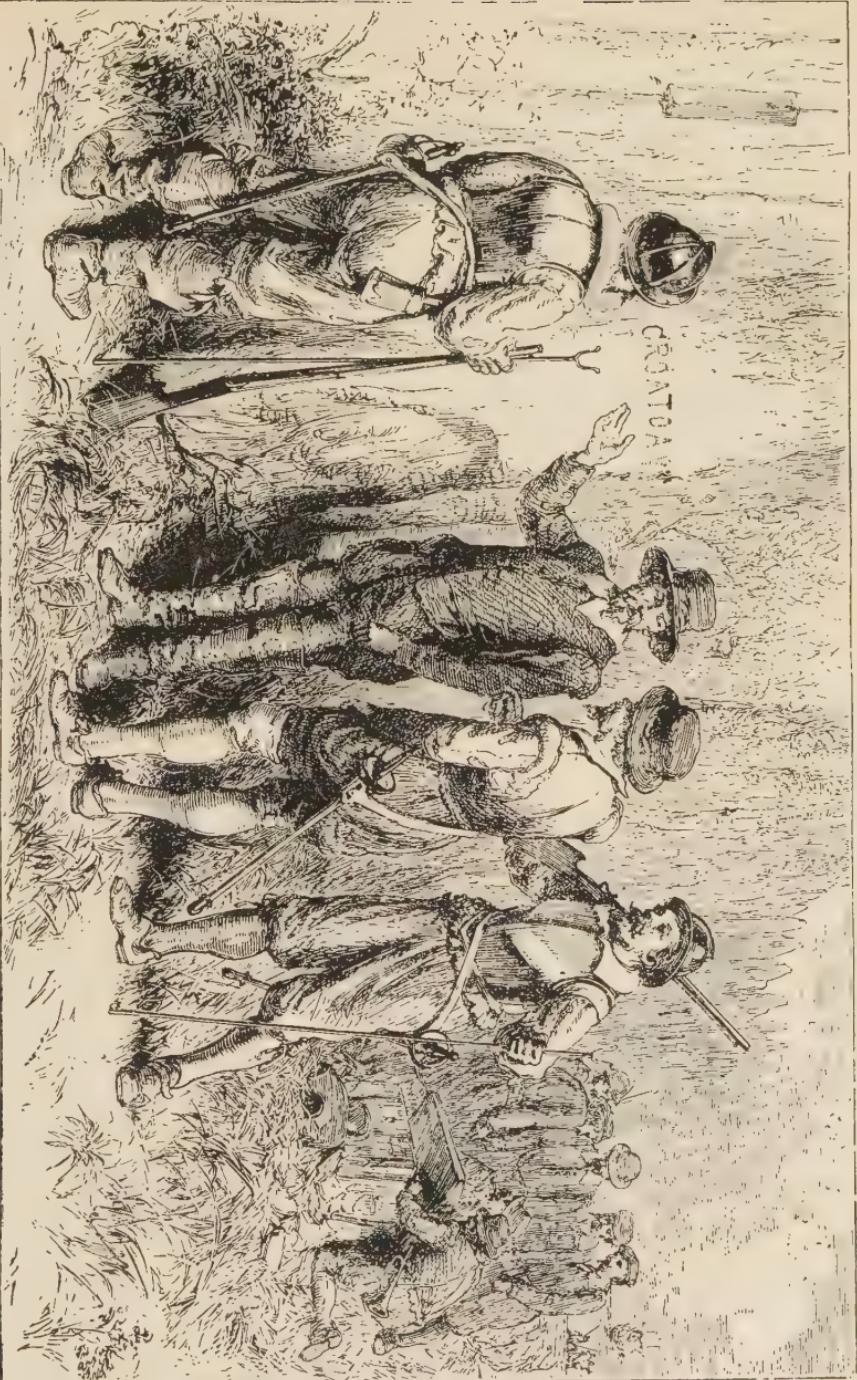
When John White returned to England he found the country so taken up with the preparations for the coming of the Spanish Armada; that nothing could be done to help the colonists at Roanoke. It was three years before he again reached that island, and this is how he describes what followed:

“We put off in two boats with nineteen persons. We spied towards the north end of the island the light of a great fire through the woods, towards which we rowed. When we came

right over against it, we let fall our anchor near the shore and sounded a call with a trumpet, and afterward many English tunes, and called to them friendly, but we had no answer. We therefore landed at daybreak, and coming to the fire we found the grass and some rotten trees burning about the place. From there we went through the woods and returned by the water-side round about the north point of the island, until we came to the place where I left our colony in the year 1587.

“In all this way we saw in the sand the print of the savages’ feet, of two or three sorts, trodden during the night; and as we climbed up the sandy bank, upon a tree were curiously carved these fair Roman letters, C R O: which letters presently we knew to mean the place where I should find the planters, according to a secret plan agreed upon between them and me at my last departure from them. This was that they should not fail to write or carve upon the trees or posts of the doors the name of the place where they should be going, for when I left them they were prepared to remove from Roanoke fifty miles into the land. Therefore, at my departure from them in 1587, I told them that if they should happen to be in distress in any of those places, they should carve over the letters a cross + in this form; but we found no such sign of distress. And having well considered this, we passed toward the place where they were left in some houses; but we found the houses taken down, and the place very strongly enclosed with a high palisado of great trees, like a fort. And one of the chief trees or posts at the right side of the entrance had the bark taken off; and five feet from the ground, in fair capital letters, was carved CROATOAN, without any cross or sign of distress. We then entered into the fort, where we found many bars of iron, two pigs of lead, four iron cannon balls, and such like heavy things, thrown here and there, almost overgrown with grasses and weeds.

“From there we went along by the water-side, toward the point of the creek, to see if we could find any of their boats, but we could see no sign of them, nor any of the cannon and small arms which were left with them at my departure from them. At our



THE MESSAGE OF THE LOST COLONY

From Bryant & Gay's Popular History of U. S.

return from the creek, some of our sailors, meeting us, told us they had found where several chests had been hidden, and long since digged up again and broken open, and much of the goods in them spoiled and scattered about, but nothing left undamaged of any things the savages knew the use of. Presently Captain Cooke and I went to the place, which was in the end of an old trench, made two years past, where we found five chests that had been carefully hidden by the planters, and three of these were my own ; and about the place many of my things spoiled and broken, and my books torn from the covers, the frames of some of my pictures and maps rotten and spoiled with rain, and my armor almost eaten through with rust. This could be no other but the work of the savages who had watched the departure of our men to Croatoan, and, as soon as they were departed, digged up every place where they suspected anything to be buried. But although it much grieved me to see such spoil of my goods, yet on the other hand I greatly joyed that I had found a sure sign of their being safe at Croatoan, which is the place where the savages of the island are our friends.

“The next morning it was agreed by the Captain and myself to weigh anehor and go to the place at Croatoan where our planters were, for the wind was good for that place ; but when the anchor was almost drawn up, the cable broke and we drove so fast toward the shore that we were forced to let fall a third anchor. Being thus clear of some dangers and gotten into deeper water, we were not without some loss, for we had but one cable and anchor left us out of four. The weather grew to be fouler and fouler, our victuals scarce, and our eask and fresh water lost ; it was therefore determined that we should [give up the search and] go for St. John or some other island to the southward for fresh water.”³⁴

Nobody knows what became of little Virginia Dare and her friends. Perhaps they were saved by the friendly Indians and lived and married with them. Perhaps Virginia Dare grew up to be an “Indian Queen” about the time the English came again to settle for good at Jamestown, twenty years later. Who knows ?

BEGINNINGS OF SPANISH NEW MEXICO, 1598

All New Spain had been shocked and alarmed by the raids of Drake upon the west coast of America. Of the many rumors that came to Mexico, one had it that Drake had found the mythical strait of Anian—the strait that Cabrillo had sought thirty-five years before—and had passed through it on his way home to England. This determined the Spanish king to send a large expedition northward to secure the territory to the shores of that strait.

The expedition set forth from Mexico in 1596 under the command of Oñate (see map, p. 246). It was composed of 130 soldier-settlers and their families, numerous Indian and Negro slaves, livestock and settlers' supplies. Priests as usual went along to found missions and care for the Indians of the new regions. Oñate's settlement was not permanent and his expedition came to grief; but his successor led the colonists to found the town of Santa Fé in 1609.

Oñate made his settlement at a place not far from the site of Santa Fé, and from there sent out many expeditions to explore the land, subdue the Indians and convert them to the Catholic faith. One expedition was sent northeastward to the buffalo plains for a supply of meat and to capture live buffalo for the use of the colonists at the settlement. Here is a portion of the original account of the expedition. The Indians met with on the plains were Apaches.

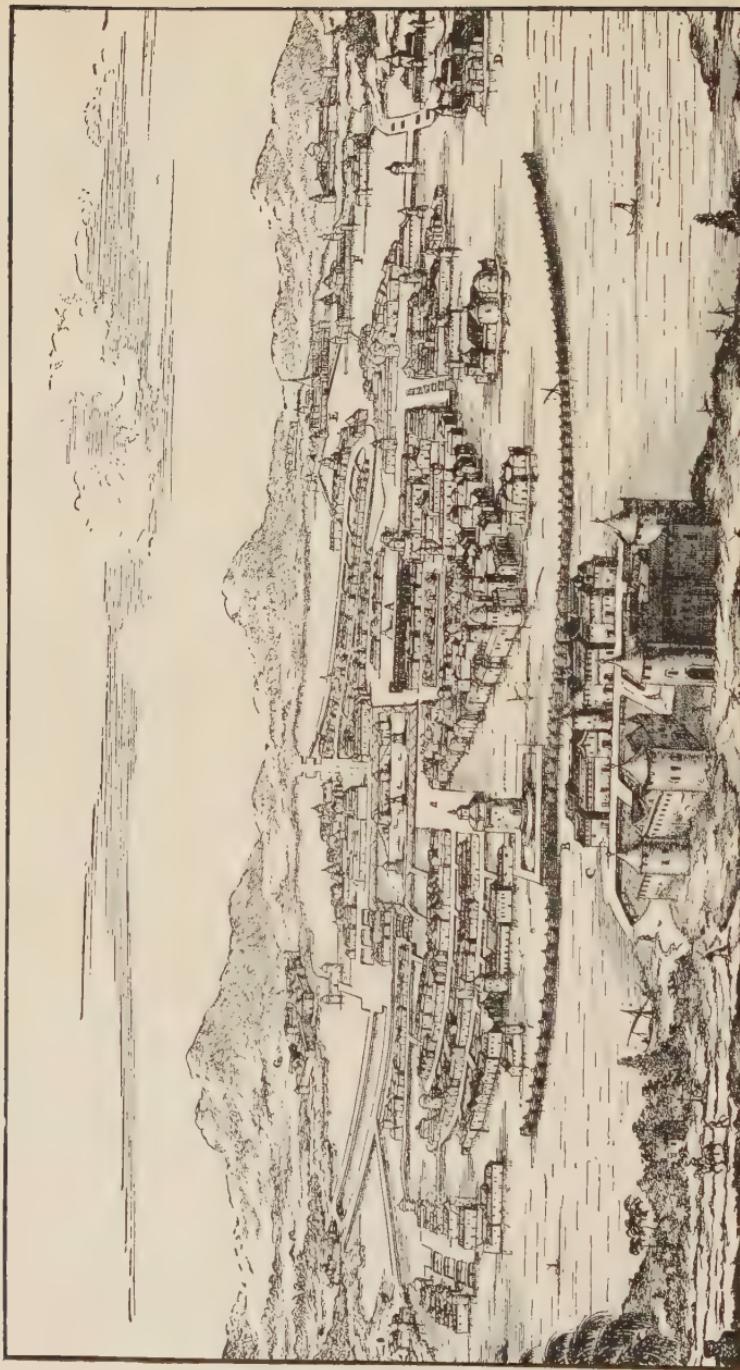
THE DISCOVERY OF THE BUFFALO, 1599

The Sergeant Major Mendoca and other captains and soldiers, to the number of sixty, set out from camp for the cattle herds on the 15th day of September, well provided with many droves of mares and other supplies. As they travelled many Indians and Indian women came out to meet them. Most of the men go naked, but some are clothed with skins of buffalo and some with blankets. The women wear a sort of trousers made of buckskin, and shoes or leggins, after their own fashion. The Sergeant Major gave them presents and told them by means of the interpreter that Governor Juan de Oñate had sent him that they might know that he would protect those who were loyal to his Majesty

From an old print

THE CAPITAL OF NEW SPAIN

Copy of an old engraving, which pictures more or less truly what the City of Mexico looked like at the time of the early Spanish settlement. The city was built on the site of the old Aztec Pueblo, which occupied two islands on a large shallow lake.



[the king of Spain] and punish those that were not. All were friendly and very well pleased.

Bidding them goodby, he left that place and travelled on, and at last they saw the first buffalo bull, which, being rather old, wandered alone and ran but little. This was regarded as a great joke, for the least man in the company would not be satisfied with less than ten thousand head of cattle in his own corral. They found a ranchería in which there were fifty tents made of tanned hides, very bright red and white in color and bell-shaped, with flaps and openings, and built as skillfully as those of Italy and so large that there was easily room for four different beds. The tanning is so fine that although it should rain bucketfuls it will not pass through nor stiffen the hide, but rather upon drying it remains as soft and pliable as before.

Although it was so very large, a tent did not weigh over fifty pounds. To carry this load, the poles that they use to set it up, and a knapsack of meat and their maize, the Indians use a medium-sized shaggy dog. They drive great trains of them. Each, girt round its breast and haunches, and carrying a load of flour of at least one hundred pounds, travels as fast as his master. It is very laughable to see them travelling, the ends of the poles dragging on the ground, nearly all of them snarling in their encounters, travelling one after another on their journey. In order to load them the Indian women seize their heads between their knees and thus load them.

On the 5th of October they continued their march so as to reach the main herd of the cattle. They went in search of a suitable site for a corral, and upon finding a place they began to construct it out of large pieces of cottonwood. It took them three days to complete it. It was so large that they thought they could corral ten thousand head of cattle, because they had seen so many, during those days, wandering so near to the tents and houses.

The corral constructed, they went next day to a plain where on the previous afternoon about a hundred thousand cattle had been seen. Giving them the right of way, the cattle started very nicely towards the corral, but soon they turned back in a stampede towards the men, and, rushing through them in a mass, it was impossible to stop them, because they are terribly obstinate, and so cunning that if their pursuers stop or slacken their speed they stop and roll, just like mules, and with this rest renew their run. For several days our men tried a

thousand ways of shutting them in or of surrounding them, but in no manner was it possible to do so. This was not due to fear, for they killed three of our horses and badly wounded forty, for their horns are very sharp and fairly long, about a span and a half, and bent upward together. They attack from the side, putting the head far down, so that whatever they seize they tear very badly. Nevertheless, some were killed and more than a ton of tallow was secured, which without doubt is greatly superior to that of pork; the meat of the bull is superior to



TROUBLE WITH THE DOG TRAVEAUX

that of our cow, and that of the cow equals our most tender veal or mutton.

Seeing therefore that the full-grown cattle could not be brought alive, the Sergeant Major ordered that calves be captured, but they became so enraged that out of the many which were being brought, some dragged by ropes and others upon the horses, not one got a league toward the camp, for they all died within about an hour. Therefore it is believed that unless taken shortly after birth and put under the care of our cows and goats, they cannot be brought until the cattle become tamer than they now are.

Its shape and form are so marvellous and laughable, or frightful, that if one were to see it a hundred times a day he could not keep from

laughing heartily, or fail to marvel at the sight of so ferocious an animal. Its horns are black; its eyes are small; its face, snout, feet, and hoofs of the same form as our cows, with the exception that both the male and the female are very much bearded, similar to he-goats. They are so thickly covered with wool that it covers their eyes and face, and the forelock nearly envelops their horns. This wool, which is long and very soft, extends almost to the middle of the body, but from there on the hair is shorter. Over the ribs they have so much wool and the back is so high that they appear humpbacked, although in reality they are not greatly so, for the hump easily disappears when the hides are stretched.

In general, they are larger than our cattle. Their tail is like that of a hog, being very short, and having few bristles at the tip, and they twist it upward when they run. At the knee they have natural garters of very long hair. In their haunches, which resemble those of mules, they are hipped and crippled, and they therefore run in leaps, especially down hill. They are all of the same dark color, somewhat tawny, in parts their hair being almost black. As many of these cattle as are desired can be killed and brought to these settlements, which are distant from them thirty or forty leagues, but if they are to be brought alive it will be most difficult unless time and crossing them with those from Spain make them tamer.

These cattle have their haunts on some very level mesas [tablelands] which extend over many leagues. The mesas have neither mountain, nor tree, nor shrub, and when on them our men were guided solely by the sun. At the base of these mesas, in some places where there are glens or valleys, there are many cedars, and an infinite number of springs which issue from these very mesas, and a half league from them there are large cotton groves.

The Indians are numerous in all that land. They live in rancherías in the hide tents. They always follow the cattle, and in their pursuit they are as well sheltered in their tents as they could be in any house. They eat meat almost raw, and much tallow and suet, which serves them as bread, and with a chunk of meat in one hand and a piece of tallow in the other, they bite first on one and then on the other, and grow up magnificently strong and courageous. Their weapons consist of flint and very large bows, after the manner of the Turks. Our men saw some arrows with long thick points [spears?], although few, for

the flint is better than spears to kill cattle. They kill them at the first shot with the greatest skill, while hidden in brush blinds made at the watering places.

Those who went there consumed on the journey fifty-four days and returned to this camp on the 8th of November, 1598, thanks be to God.³⁵



Courtesy of Extension Division, University of California
A HERD OF BUFFALO

OÑATE'S MEN FIND MINES WITH THE HELP OF THE INDIANS

Many of the mines that have since been worked in the Southwest were found by the Spanish conquerors. Following is the old account of an early visit to one of the mines by some of Oñate's men:

As it was late, they camped that night on the slope of some hills, at a spring of water which issued from one of them, very large and carrying much water, almost hot. Here six Indians from different rancherías of those mountains joined them, and next morning they took them up to

the mine, which was at a good height, although one could go up to it on horseback, for these Indians had opened up a road. There they found an old shaft, from which the Indians extracted the ores for their personal adornment and for the coloring of their blankets, because in this mine there are brown, black, water-colored, blue, and green ores.

The vein is very wide and rich and of many outcrops, all containing ores. They took from twenty-eight to thirty claims for themselves and for the companions who remained at the camp as a guard to the Señor Governor. The veins are so long and wide that half of the people of New Spain can have mines here.³⁵

QUESTIONS

1. For what purpose was Oñate sent into New Mexico?
2. How long before had Coronado led his expedition there?
3. Who were the natives of New Mexico and how did they receive the Spaniards?
4. What was the result of Oñate's expedition?
5. When was Santa Fé founded? What city in the United States is older than Santa Fé? How much?
6. How did the life of the Indians on the plains differ from that of the pueblos?



INDIANS DRIVING BUFFALO OVER A CLIFF

THE ROCK OF ÁCOMA

Most of the villages of the Pueblo Indians were situated in places that were well fortified by nature, because the surrounding Indians were fierce warriors. Ácoma was the most secure of all. This pueblo is about 60 miles west of the Rio Grande River and is probably the oldest inhabited village in the United States, for the Indians still live there. The village occupies the top of a high rock that towers above the floor of a valley some four miles wide lined with precipices. This rock is



Courtesy of Bureau of American Ethnology
NEAR THE TOP OF THE STAIRWAY AT ÁCOMA, NEW MEXICO

357 feet high and three of its sides are straight up and down. The only way of reaching the top was by a stairway cut in the solid rock.

The first flight of steps numbered 200 and was rather easy to ascend. The second flight numbered 100 and was narrower and more difficult. There still remained about 12 feet to the top which could only be climbed by putting hands and feet in holes cut in the rock. On the top was a huge pile of stones ready to be hurled upon any enemy that should attempt to ascend the stairway. Tourists in New Mexico today usually visit this most interesting Indian village.

Oñate decided to visit all the pueblos and to require of the Indians pledges of allegiance to the king of Spain. In time his party camped at the foot of the Rock of Ácoma, where the chief men met Oñate and gave their solemn pledge of fealty. Being invited to visit the village, Oñate accepted and climbed the Rock. As he was being shown about the place he was requested to go down a long ladder that led from a trapdoor on the roof of one of the largest buildings to the sacred council-chamber. Becoming suspicious he declined and thus saved his



Courtesy of Bureau of American Ethnology
THE PUEBLO ON THE TOP OF THE ROCK OF ÁCOMA

life, for hidden in this chamber was a band of Indians prepared to pounce upon him.

Oñate departed in safety, but another party under the command of Lieutenant Zaldivar that was following him was not so fortunate. With 15 men Zaldivar climbed the Rock to visit the village. At a certain sign the Indians fell upon the party and most of its members were killed. Four Spaniards leaped from the Rock, three of whom by some miracle lived. Another party of 60 men was sent to punish and subdue the pueblo. This was done in a most remarkable contest. The story is told by Lummis in his book "The Spanish Pioneers."

THE BEGINNINGS OF NEW FRANCE: CHAMPLAIN

You remember that when the religious troubles of France were somewhat settled at the time Henry IV was crowned king, that vigorous monarch undertook to repair the damages of the religious wars and to build up the kingdom. One of the things he became interested in was discovery and trade in the new parts of the world. This idea he had learned from his old Huguenot friend Coligny, who had tried so unsuccessfully to set up a French colony in Florida. That dreadful experience had discouraged the French from trying further in the south. England, under the leadership of Ralegh, was trying to occupy the middle part of the Atlantic coast. There remained for the French, therefore, the region of the northwest, where Cartier sixty years before had pointed to vast unoccupied territories, covered with wonderful forests alive with fur-bearing animals. Already French traders and fishermen were visiting these regions and the fishing banks of Newfoundland, to their great profit. It was a cold country but the men of northern France were hardy; it seemed the best field for French enterprise.

It was the habit in France at the time for the king to grant great trading privileges to his nobles and distinguished men. Such a monopoly of the trade of Acadia (Nova Scotia and the neighboring territory), and of Canada, passed from one nobleman to another during Champlain's time. But he was the leading spirit in all the early ventures—more interested in geography and the expansion of France than in any personal gains he might make there. Champlain is therefore called the Founder of New France.

THE FRENCH SETTLE AT ACADIA, 1604

Champlain's first voyage was made to the St. Lawrence in 1603, where no signs were found of Cartier's earlier visit and no settlement was made. In the following year two ships went out to America, one to the St. Lawrence, the other to the region of Acadia. On the second was Champlain, as chief geographer. On an island in Passamaquoddy Bay a settlement was made (St.

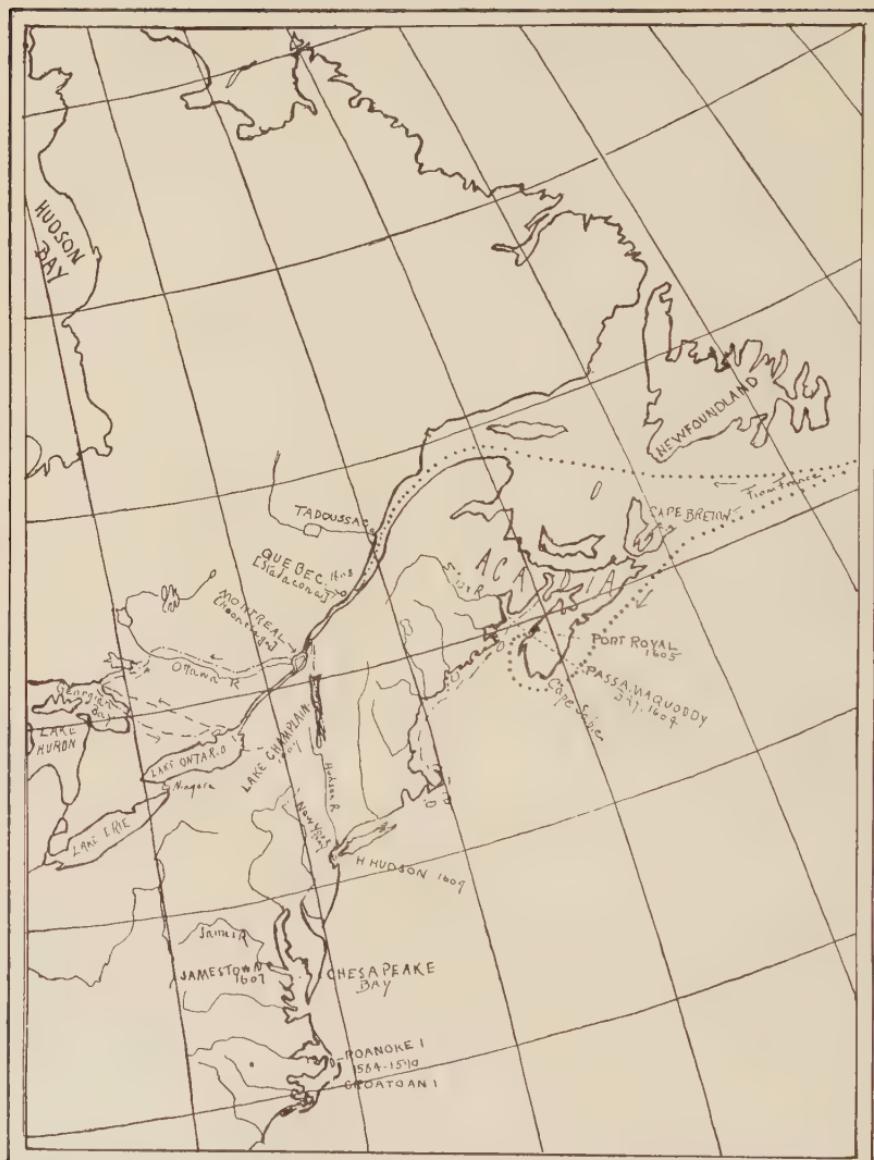
Croix), which barely survived the scurvy and other hardships of the winter season (see map, p. 320). In the spring and summer, after some searching about for a better place, the buildings were moved across the Bay to Port Royal, in what is now called Annapolis Basin. The second winter was a mild one, and although the settlement had some deaths from scurvy, their sufferings did not compare with those of the first winter at St. Croix.

By August of 1606, not having received the help they expected from France, the party decided to return home on some of the trading ships at Cape Breton, leaving two men only at Port Royal to care for the property. As their little vessel was passing Cape Sable they were gladdened with the news of a ship just arrived at Port Royal which had passed them unseen. On this ship was a very interesting man, Lescarbot by name, a lawyer from Paris, come to the new world in search of amusement and adventure. Later he wrote a most entertaining history of New France, and from his book we are to have the part that describes his voyage across the ocean, and then a part that tells how the next winter was passed comfortably and in good spirits.

When he could, Champlain made excursions along the coast of Acadia and New England, obtaining knowledge of these regions for his books, and for his later work on the St. Lawrence.

LESCARBOT'S STORY OF CROSSING THE OCEAN TO ACADIA

On Saturday, Whitsun Eve, being the 13th of May, we weighed anchor and put out to sea. Little by little the great towers of the town of La Rochelle faded from our view and we bade farewell to France. We were a whole month without seeing anything outside our own floating town except sky and sea, save that near the Azores we fell in with a ship well manned with Englishmen and Flemings. They came across our bows and ran alongside, and, as is the custom of the sea, we asked them whence their ship came. They replied that they were Newfoundlanders, meaning that they were bound for the cod-fishery at Newfoundland, and asked if we would accept of their company, an offer which we declined with many thanks. Thereupon they drank to our health and we to theirs, and they went off in another direction. But



MAP FOR ACADIA AND NEW FRANCE AND THE FIRST ENGLISH SETTLEMENTS AT ROANOKE ISLAND AND JAMESTOWN

after closely examining their ship, which was coated with green moss along its sides and bilge, we came to the conclusion that they were pirates, and that they had long been scouring the sea in the hope of making a prize.

Continuing our course, we met several storms. Before these storms often came porpoises, which surrounded our ship in thousands, and gamboled very pleasantly. Some of them came to grief in drawing too close to us, for we had a watch set below the bowsprit, harpoon in hand, which ran them through more than once and brought them on board with the aid of the rest of the crew, who hoisted them on deck with gaffs, and very glad indeed we were to get them. This animal has rather less than two fingers of fat on his back. When he was cut open we bathed our hands in his yet warm blood, which is said to help to strengthen the sinews. He has a wondrous number of teeth all along his mouth, and I think that what he once has he holds. The meat tastes exactly like pork, and his bones are not like those of a fish, but of a quadruped. [Is this correct? Why?]

We saw other large fish at a distance, which showed more than half an acre of their back above the water, and threw in the air to the height of more than two lances great streams of water from the blow-holes and openings in their heads.

To return to our story of the storms during the journey, we met several which made us lower sail and sit with folded arms, borne at the will of the waves, and buffeted in strange fashion. If any box was badly lashed we could hear it roll about and make a fine uproar. Sometimes the soup-kettle was upset, and at dinner or supper our dishes flew from one end of the table to the other, unless they were well secured. To drink, one had to sway one's mouth and glass according to the motion of the ship. However, most of us took it as a joke, since we were in a stout ship. Sometimes, too, we had very tiresome calms, during which we bathed in the ocean, danced on the upper deck, climbed the crosstrees, sang in harmony. But when we saw a little cloud rise above the horizon, then we were fain to leave our sports, and to watch out for a squall concealed therein, which unrolling, muttering, snorting, whistling, howling, storming, rumbling, could have turned our ship upside down had there not been men ready to carry out the orders of the master of the ship.

After leaving the pirates mentioned above we were tossed about till

June 18th by various winds. But here in passing I must notice a matter which seems to me wonderful. About this same day we found for the space of three days the water of the sea quite warm and our wine in the hold was the same, though the air was no warmer than before. [Why was this?] And the 21st of the said month, on the contrary, we were for two or three days so surrounded with fog and cold, that we thought we were in the month of January, and the sea water was extremely cold. The fogs lasted till we reached the Banks. The cause of this change I believe to be the icebergs of the north which come down upon the coast and into the sea which washes the shores of Newfoundland and Labrador.

The Bank of which we have spoken above is the Grand Bank, where is carried on the fishery for green cod. The sailors before reaching it are forewarned that they are near it by the birds. Of these birds the most frequent are the guillemots, terns, and others [now called the noddy]. On recognizing these birds we judged that we were not far from the Bank; and therefore on June 22nd we heaved the lead and found bottom in 36 fathoms. I cannot express our joy at seeing ourselves there where we had so much desired to arrive. Sickness disappeared, every one leaped for joy, and we seemed to be at our journey's end.

Before going on I wish to explain this word "Bank." The bank of which we speak is a chain of mountains seated in the deepest depths of the ocean, and lifting their tops to within 30, 36, or 40 fathoms of the surface. This bank is held to be 200 leagues long, and 18, 20, or 24 broad. Once past it there is no bottom on either side until land is reached. When the ships have reached it the sails are furled, and the crews, as I have said, fish for green cod. Beyond the Grand codfish bank one finds others. When we were leaving La Rochelle there was a very forest of ships which set sail two days before us, and departed on the same tack for Newfoundland.

On June 28th we found ourselves in 40 fathoms of water. Thenceforward signs of land began to appear, such as plants, mosses, flowers, and pieces of wood. On Friday, the 7th of July, we sighted to starboard a high coast, stretching out of sight, which filled us with greater joy than before. While we were yet a great way off, the most daring men climbed to the crosstrees to get a better view, so desirous were we

all of this land. M. de Poutrincourt went up and I also, which we had hitherto not done. Our dogs thrust their noses over the side, the better to sniff the land breezes, and could not refrain from showing their joy



By C. W. Jeffreys

Victor Animatograph Co.

THE MYSTERY OF THE NEW LAND

by their actions. Those who had previously crossed the ocean were of the opinion that we had reached Cape Breton.

At last, on Saturday, July 15th, about two o'clock in the afternoon we saw coming straight towards us—we being then four leagues off shore—two long-boats with all sail set, one manned with savages who

had a moose painted on their sail, the other by Frenchmen who were fishing off Canso harbor; the savages arrived first. They were the first I had ever seen, and I admired their fine shape and well-formed faces. We gave them food and drink, and they told us all that had happened in the past year at Port Royal, which was our destination. Meanwhile the Frenchmen arrived. These Frenchmen were in the service of the partners of M. de Monts [the owners of the trading monopoly from the king], and complained that the Basques, contrary to the king's commands, had bartered with the savages and carried off more than 6000 beaver pelts.

On Tuesday, the 25th, we were off Cape Sable in fine weather, and made a good run that day. The next day we cast anchor at the entrance of Port Royal, where we could not enter by reason of the tide; but two cannon were fired from our ship to salute the port and to inform the French who were there. On Thursday we entered with the flood tide, though not without much difficulty. Our ship sailed stern-first, and more than once turned round, without its being possible to prevent it. But when at last within the harbor it was a wondrous sight for us to see its fair extent and the mountains and hills which shut it in, and I wondered that so fair a spot remained wild, and all wooded, seeing that so many folk were ill-off in this world who could make their profit of this land if only they had a leader to bring them there.

We did not yet know that M. du Pont had started for France, and therefore we expected that he would have sent a party to greet us; but in vain, for he had left twelve days before. But while we were drifting about the harbor, Membertou, chief of the Souriquois, the name of the tribe in that neighborhood, rushed up to the French fort, to the solitary two men who had remained, and cried out like a mad man, saying in his own language: "Wake up there. You are dawdling over your dinner (for it was about twelve o'clock) and do not see a great ship which is arriving, and we know not who they are!"

At once these two men ran to the wall and hastily loaded the cannon. Membertou without delay came out to meet us in his bark canoe, with one of his daughters, and finding nothing but friendship, and perceiving that we were French, he gave no alarm. However, one of the two men who had remained came to the harbor's edge, with the match of his firelock lighted. At once four cannon roared out, waking numberless echoes, and on our part the fort was saluted with three cannonades

and several volleys of musketry, nor did our trumpeter fail to do his duty. Soon we landed, visited the house, and passed the day in returning thanks to God, in inspecting the wigwams of the savages, and in wandering through the meadows.

And I cannot but greatly praise the high courage of those two men for having so freely risked their lives for the property of New France. For M. du Pont, having only a long boat and a skiff wherein to go in search of French ships off Newfoundland, could not burden himself with all the furniture, wheat, flour and merchandise which was there, and it must all have been thrown into the sea had not these two men faced the danger of remaining there in order to preserve them. And this they had with light hearts volunteered to do.

HOW THEY PASSED THE WINTER: "THE ORDER OF GOOD CHEER"

It would be tedious to attempt to tell all that was done among us during the winter. But I shall relate how in order to keep our table joyous and well provided, an Order was established which was called the Order of Good Cheer, originally proposed by Champlain. To this Order each man at the table was appointed Chief Steward in his turn, which came round once a fortnight. Now this person had the duty of taking care that we were all well provided for. This was well carried out. For there was no one who, two days before his turn came, failed to go hunting or fishing, and to bring back some delicacy, in addition to our ordinary fare. So well was this carried out that never at breakfast did we lack some savory meat of flesh or fish, and still less at our midday or evening meals, for that was our chief banquet. At this the ruler of the feast, or chief butler, having had everything prepared by the cook, marched in, napkin on shoulder, wand of office in hand, and around his neck the collar of the Order, which was worth more than four crowns; after him all the members of the Order, carrying each a dish. The same was repeated at dessert, though not always with so much pomp. And at night, before giving thanks to God, he handed over to his successor the collar of the Order, with a cup of wine, and they drank to each other.

I have already said that we had abundance of game, such as ducks, bustards, grey and white geese, partridges, larks and other birds; moreover moose, caribou, beaver, otter, bear, rabbits, wildcats, rac-



By C. W. Jeffreys

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THE ORDER OF GOOD CHEER

coons and other animals, such as the savages caught, whereof we made dishes well worth those of the cook-shops of Paris, and far more; for of all our meats none is so tender as moose-meat and nothing so delicate as beaver's tail. Yea, sometimes we had half a dozen sturgeon at once, which the savages brought us, part of which we bought, and allowed them to sell the remainder publicly and to barter it for bread, of which our men had abundance.

At these proceedings we always had twenty or thirty savages, men, women, girls and children, who looked on at our manner of service. Bread was given them free as one would do to the poor. But as for Membertou and other chiefs, who came from time to time, they sat at table, eating and drinking like ourselves. And we were glad to see them, while, on the contrary, their absence saddened us; as happened three or four times when they all went away hunting, and took with them one of our men who lived for some six weeks in their fashion, without salt, bread or wine, sleeping on the ground on skins, and that too in time of snow. Moreover, they took greater care of him, as also of others who often went with them, than of themselves. For this tribe loves the French, and would at need take up arms, one and all, to aid them.³⁶

CHAMPLAIN'S ACCOUNT OF THE FOUNDING OF QUEBEC, 1608

Having returned to France after a stay of three years in New France, I proceeded to Sieur de Monts [owner of the trading monopoly] and related to him the principal events since his departure, and gave him the map and plan of the most remarkable coasts and harbors there. Some time afterward Sieur de Monts determined to complete the exploration of the interior along the great river St. Lawrence, where I had been. He honored me with his lieutenancy for the voyage, and in order to carry out his purpose, he had two vessels equipped, one commanded by Pont Gravé, who was commissioned to trade with the savages of the country and bring back the vessels, while I was to winter in the country.

I proceeded to Honfleur for embarkation, where I found the vessel of Pont Gravé in readiness. He left port on the 5th of April. I did so on the 13th, arriving at the Grand Bank on the 15th of May. On the 26th we sighted Newfoundland. On the 27th we sighted Cape Breton.

On the 3rd of June we arrived before Tadoussac (see map, p. 320). I at once had the boat lowered in order to go to the port and learn whether Pont Gravé had arrived. While on the way I met a shallop with the pilot of Pont Gravé and a Basque, who came to inform me of what had happened to them. They attempted to hinder the Basque vessels from trading, according to the commission obtained by Sieur de Monts from his Majesty that no vessels should trade without permission of Sieur de Monts. The Basques discharged all their cannon upon the vessel of Pont Gravé, letting off many musket shots. He was severely wounded, together with three of his men, one of whom died. The Basques came on board of the vessel and took away all the cannon and arms, declaring that they would trade in spite of the prohibition of the king, and that when they were ready to set out for France they would restore to him his cannon and ammunition. I was greatly annoyed at such a beginning, which we might have easily avoided.

Now after hearing from the pilot all these things I asked him why the Basque had come on board our vessel. He told me that he came in behalf of their master, named Darache, and his companions, to obtain assurance from me that I would do them no harm when our vessel entered the harbor. I replied that I could not give any until I had seen Pont Gravé. The Basque said that if I had need of anything in their power, they would assist me. What led them to use this language was simply their knowledge of having done wrong, as they confessed, and the fear that they would not be permitted to engage in the whale-fishery. After talking at length, I went ashore to see Pont Gravé in order to talk over what was to be done. I found him very ill. He related to me in detail all that had happened. We concluded that we could only enter the harbor by force, and that the settlement must not be given up for this year, so that we considered it best to give them assurances on my part so long as I should remain there, and that Pont Gravé should undertake nothing against them, but that justice should be done in France, and their differences should be settled there.

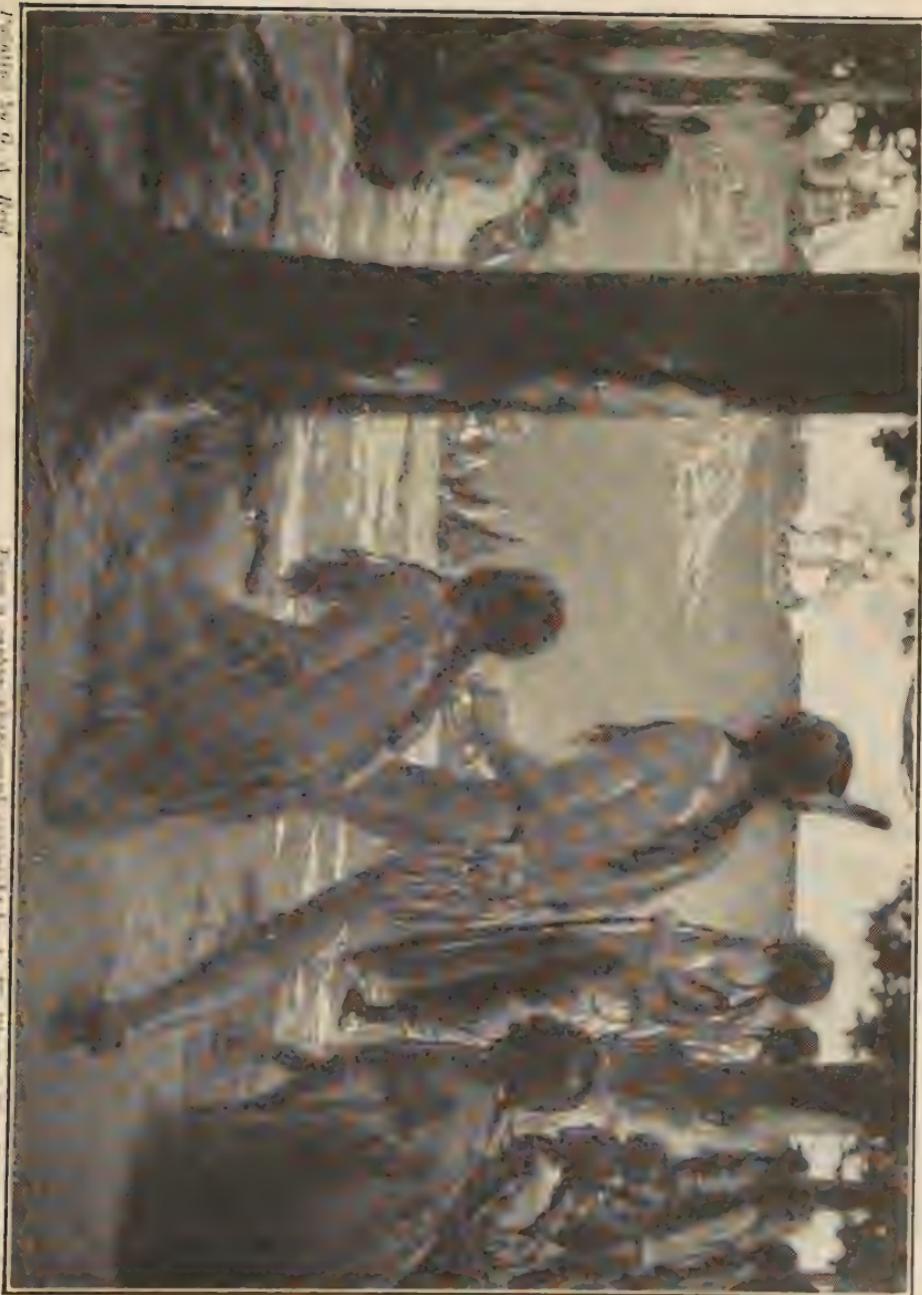
I arrived at Quebec on the 3rd of July, when I searched for a place suitable for our settlement, but I could find none more convenient or better situated than the point of Quebec, so called by the savages, which was covered with nut-trees. I at once employed a portion of our workmen in cutting them down so that we might construct our habitation there. One I set to sawing boards, another to making a cellar and

Painted by G. A. Reid

From a sketch by E. W. Hopper, 1923

Mass.

THE COMING OF THE WHITE MAN
(The ships are Champlain's)



digging ditches, another I sent to Tadoussac with the barque to get supplies. The first thing we made was the storehouse for keeping under cover our supplies, which was promptly done through the zeal of all, and my attention to the work.

Some days after my arrival at Quebec a locksmith conspired against the service of the king. His plan was to put me to death, and getting possession of our fort, to put it into the hands of the Basques or Spaniards, then at Tadoussac. In order to execute his wretched plan, by which he hoped to make his fortune, he drew to him four of the worst characters, as he supposed, telling them a thousand falsehoods, and presenting to them prospects of acquiring riches. These four men, having been won over, all promised to act in such a manner as to gain the rest over to their side; so that, for the time being, I had no one with me in whom I could trust, which gave them still more hope of making their plan succeed. For four or five of my companions whom they knew I trusted, were on board of the barques, for the purpose of protecting the provisions and supplies for our settlement.

In a word, they were so skillful in carrying out their plot with those who remained, that they were on the point of gaining all over to their cause, even my servant, promising them many impossible things. Being now all agreed, they made daily different plans as to how they should put me to death, so as not to be accused of it, which they found to be a difficult thing. They determined to take me while unarmed and strangle me; or to give a false alarm at night, and shoot me as I went out. They were to execute their plan in four days, before the arrival of the barques, otherwise they would have been unable to carry out their scheme. On this very day one of our barques arrived, with our pilot, Captain Testu, a very discreet man. After the barque was unloaded and ready to return to Tadoussac, there came to him a locksmith named Natel, an associate of Jean du Val, the head of the conspiracy, who told him that he had promised the rest to do just as they did; but that he did not in fact desire the execution of the plot, yet did not dare to tell of it, from fear of being killed.

Natel made the pilot promise that he would not tell anything in regard to what he should say. The pilot promised and asked him to describe the plot. This Natel did, when the pilot said to him: "My friend, you have done well to tell me of this wicked plan, and you show that you are an upright man, and under the guidance of the Holy Spirit.

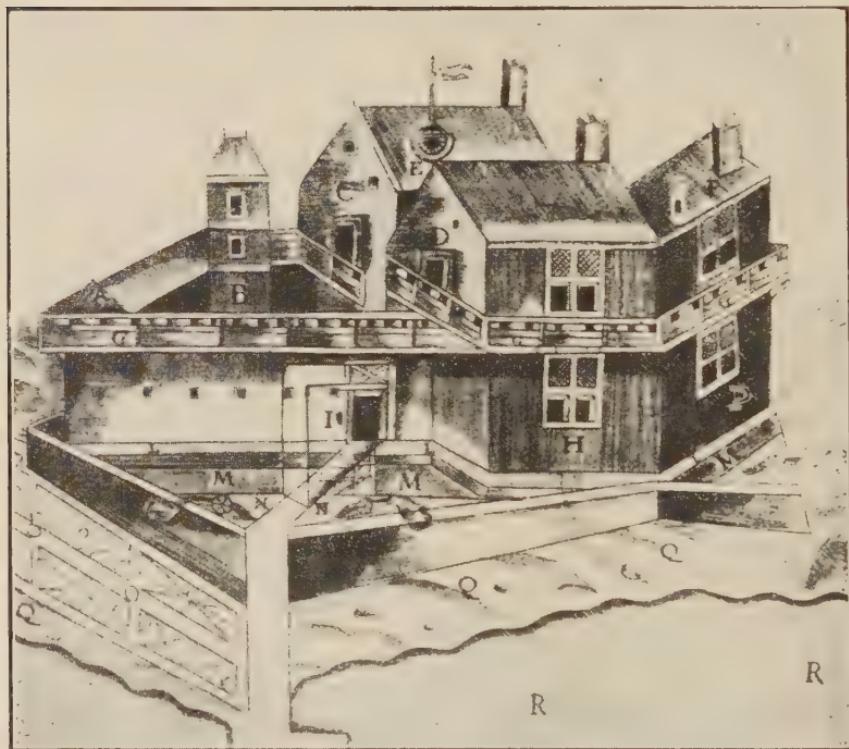
But these things cannot be passed by without bringing them to the knowledge of Sieur de Champlain; and I promise you that I will prevail upon him to pardon you and the rest."

The pilot came at once to me, in a garden which I was having prepared, and said that he wished to speak to me where we could be alone. We went into the wood, where he related to me the whole affair. After having heard and questioned him, I directed him to go about his work. Meanwhile, I ordered the pilot to bring up his shallop, which he did. Then I gave two bottles of wine to a young man, directing him to say to these four worthies, the leaders of the conspiracy, that it was a present of wine which he wished to share with them. This they did not decline, and at evening were on board the barque where he was to give them the entertainment. I lost no time in going there shortly after, and caused them to be seized and held until the next day. Then were my worthies astonished indeed. I at once had all the others get up, for it was about ten o'clock in the evening, and pardoned them all, on condition that they would tell the truth, which they did, when I had them retire.

After Pont Gravé and I, the captain of the vessel, surgeon, mate, second mate, and other sailors, had heard their face-to-face statements, we judged that it would be enough to put to death Du Val, as the one who started the conspiracy; and that he might serve as an example. We decided that the three others be condemned to be hung, but that they should be taken to France, and put into the hands of Sieur de Monts that such ample justice might be done them as he should recommend; that they should be sent with all the evidence and their sentence, as well as that of Jean du Val, who was strangled and hung at Quebec, and his head was put on the end of a pike, to be set up on the most conspicuous place on our fort.

After all these happenings Pont Gravé set out for Quebec on the 18th of September to return to France with the three prisoners. After he had gone all who remained behaved correctly in the discharge of their duty. I had the work on our quarters continued, which was composed of three buildings of two stories. Each one was three fathoms long and two and a half wide. The storehouse was six fathoms long and three wide, with a fine cellar six feet deep. I had a gallery made all around our buildings, on the outside at the second story, which proved very convenient. There were also ditches, fifteen feet wide and six deep.

On the outer side of the ditches I constructed several spurs which enclosed a part of the dwelling at the points where we placed our cannon. Before the habitation there is a place four fathoms wide and



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CIIAMPLAIN'S DRAWING OF THE HABITATION AT QUEBEC

A—Storehouse. B—Pigeon-house. C—Building for storing arms and quarters for workmen. D—Workmen's quarters. E—Sun-dial. F—Forge and artisans' quarters. G—Outside galleries. H—Champlain's private quarters. I—Main door with drawbridge. L—Walk (10 feet wide) all round the building. M—Ditch surrounding the building. N—Platforms for artillery. O—Champlain's garden. P—Kitchen. Q—Terrace in front of building on the river-bank. R—The St. Lawrence River.

six or seven long, looking out upon the river bank. Surrounding the habitation are very good gardens.

Near Quebec there is a little river, coming from a lake in the interior, distant six or seven leagues from our settlement. I am of opinion that this river [the St. Charles] which is northwest from our settlement,

is the place where Jacques Cartier wintered, since there are still, a league up the river, remains of what seems to have been a chimney and ditches surrounding their dwelling, which was small. We found, also, large pieces of hewn, worm-eaten timber, and some three or four cannonballs. All these things show clearly that there was a settlement there founded by Christians; and what leads me to say and believe that it was that of Jacques Cartier is the fact that there is no evidence whatever that any one wintered and built a house in these places except Jacques Cartier, at the time of his discoveries.³⁷



Victor Animatograph Co.

ON LAKE CHAMPLAIN

THE DISCOVERY OF LAKE CHAMPLAIN, 1609

During the first severe winter only eight of the 28 men at Quebec escaped the scurvy. With the arrival of the relief-ship from France Champlain set out upon his explorations. He was hoping to find a water-way to Cathay, but he was also interested in learning about the country and the chances for trade. In order to have the aid of the Indians he joined a party of Algonquins and Hurons against their old enemies the Iroquois. Passing up the Richelieu River, Champlain discovered and traversed the lake bearing his name. The battle was

fought near Ticonderoga. The Iroquois were astounded at the effect of the French muskets. The Indians in Champlain's party numbered 60, in 24 canoes. Only two Frenchmen accompanied Champlain, although more are shown in the picture. From this expedition Champlain learned of the water-way to the headquarters of the Hudson which was to play so large a part in later American history. In this same summer Hudson was exploring the river from New York Bay.

QUESTIONS

1. What was the first effort of France to colonize in America, and what was the result?
2. Why did the French choose the region of the Northwest for their later explorations and settlements?
3. Who first led the way there and when? For what was he looking?
4. Where were the first French settlements made in these parts?
5. What was meant by Acadia?
6. What was Champlain's office or position during his work in New France? What were his chief objects or purposes?
7. When was Quebec founded and by whom?
8. How far did New France extend in the time of Champlain?
9. How did the French seem to get along with the Indians?
10. Were trading and fishing in New France free to anybody at this time? Explain.
11. What were the Basques trying to do? Who were the Basques?
12. What was the purpose of the conspiracy against Champlain?
13. Locate on your outline map St. Croix, Port Royal, Quebec, Montreal, Lake Champlain. Show the routes taken by Champlain in his explorations.

HENRY HUDSON SEEKS A NORTHERN PASSAGE TO THE INDIES: THE VISIT TO THE HUDSON RIVER, 1609

The years 1607, 1608 and 1609 are important years in the history of North America, for they mark the beginnings of three permanent settlements, each by a different European nation. After years of failure England had at last made the beginning of Virginia at Jamestown, in the first of these years. We shall omit this story for the present. In the year following Champlain laid the foundations of New France at Quebec. This was our last story. In the third year Henry Hudson made his famous visit to the Hudson River, which was to lead to a New Netherlands in America. This is the narrative of the present section. And while we are speaking of these three important years, we may well remind ourselves that it was just about this time, too, that the Spanish were laying the foundations of New Mexico, at Santa Fé.

Here, then, are four rivals for the continent—surely a sufficient number to make a very good play if we were at the theatre, with the promise of plenty of interesting scenes as we watch their efforts to outdo one another and to win the prize. What is to be the measure of success of each of these rivals? And is any one of them to be the master of all?

We left the story of the Netherlands at the death of William of Orange in 1584. Although the Dutch Republic had then come into existence there were still to be many hard years of fighting before the Spanish king should recognize their independence. In the meantime the defeat of the Great Armada had made things easier for the Dutch, as it had for the English.

In spite of her long and exhausting contest with Spain the young republic had continued to flourish. The traffic that passed up and down the great rivers was exceedingly profitable. Presently a strong Dutch navy was built and sent out upon the seas to fight Spain and Portugal for a share in the world's trade. The Portuguese were driven out of the East Indies and the precious islands of the spices were taken by the Dutch, to remain in their

hands to the present day. England quarreled with the Dutch over these islands too, but was compelled to be content with the conquest of India. All this rivalry for the Spanish and Portuguese trade brought into existence great trading companies in all the northern nations. A group of wealthy merchants would agree to put sums of money into a common fund for the purpose of providing ships and cargoes for trading. Each man would have as many fractions or shares in the company as he cared to pay for. The company would then ask the king for the exclusive right to trade in certain parts of the world, and the king would give them large powers in managing their affairs. Then the merchants would elect a small council to take charge of the business of the company and the council would elect a few directing officers. The money that was made in trading the ships' cargoes would be distributed among the members of the company in proportion to the fractions or shares each person owned. These trading companies grew to be very rich and powerful, and the kings and parliaments were glad to aid them by passing laws and offering them the help of warships. They believed that in helping these great trading companies they were helping to make their countries richer. Naturally enough there was great rivalry among the trading companies of the different nations.

The oldest company of this kind in England was the Muscovy Company. Sebastian Cabot was its first governor, then an old man. It had been formed in the middle of the sixteenth century to trade with Russia and to search for a passage to the Indies around the northeast of Europe. When young Henry Hudson grew up he took service with this company. In 1607 and 1608 he made two voyages for the company in the hope of sailing to the eastern ocean by way of the Arctic Sea. He was not successful in either, but he returned home to become famous as the man who had at that time sailed farthest north.

Now a new trading company in France and another in Holland both wanted Hudson to do for them just what he was trying to do for the English company. The Dutch company obtained his

services, and in 1609 sent him off on his third voyage in the little Half Moon with its sixteen or eighteen sailors. He was to seek a passage by the northeast into the eastern sea. Somewhere in the North beyond Norway the ice and cold so discouraged his sailors that they refused to go farther; but they were willing to try a plan in Hudson's mind for the search of a passage into the Sea of Verrazano at some point along the middle part of the Atlantic coast of North America (see map, p. 280).



HUDSON RECEIVING HIS COMMISSION FROM THE DUTCH EAST INDIA CO.

So they turned about and sailed west to the Färöe Islands. After filling their water casks they struck to the southwest on the Gulf Stream and in time reached the coast of Maine in a somewhat battered condition. After making repairs they proceeded down the coast in search of the passage. They passed the bay which led to the little English settlement at Jamestown, now two years old. But they did not go in, perhaps because Hudson realized that a Dutch ship would not be welcomed in those regions

claimed by the king of England. Turning about he sailed north and entered the Delaware Bay, but the flow of fresh water there told him this could not be the channel he was looking for. Let us now follow the narrative of one of the men aboard the Half Moon as it tells of the famous visit to New York Bay and the Hudson River.

THE VISIT TO THE HUDSON RIVER

“Then the sun arose and we steered away north again and saw the land all like broken islands [below Sandy Hook?]. Then we luffed in for shore and came to a great lake of water. And from that lake or bay the land lieth north by east, and we had a great stream out of the bay.

“The 4th of September in the morning as soon as the day was light, we saw that it was good riding farther up. So we sent our boat to sound and found a very good harbor [Sandy Hook Harbor?]. Then we weighed and went in with our ship. Then our boat went to land with our net to fish, and caught ten great mullets of a foot and a half long apiece, and a ray as great as four men could haul into the ship. So we trimmed our boat and rode still all day. At night the wind blew hard at the northwest and our anchor did not hold, and we drove on shore but took no hurt, thanked be God! for the ground is soft sand and ooze. This day the people of the country came aboard of us, seeming very glad of our coming, and brought green tobacco and gave us of it for knives and beads. They go in deerskins, loose, well dressed. They have yellow copper. They desire clothes and are very civil. They have great stores of maize or Indian wheat, whereof they make good bread. The country is full of great and tall oaks.

“The 5th, in the morning as soon as the day was light, the wind ceased and the flood tide came. Our men went on land there and saw a great store of men, women and children, who gave them tobacco at their coming on land. So they went up into the woods and saw great store of very goodly oaks and some currants. For one of them came aboard and brought some dried and gave me

some, which were sweet and good. This day many of the people came aboard, some in mantles of feathers and some in skins of divers sorts of good furs. Some women also came to us with hemp. They had red copper tobacco-pipes; and other things of copper they did wear about their necks. At night they went on land again. So we rode very quiet, but dare not trust them.

“The 6th in the morning was fair weather; and our master sent John Colman with four other men in our boat over to the north side to sound the other river [the Narrows?]. They found at the north of the river eighteen and twenty fathoms and very good riding for ships, and a narrow river to the westward between two islands [The Kill von Kull?]. The lands, they told us, were as pleasant with grass and flowers and goodly trees as ever they had seen, and very sweet smells came from them. So they went in two leagues, and saw an open sea [Upper New York Bay?] and returned; and as they came back they were set upon by two canoes, the one having twelve, the other fourteen men. The night came on and it began to rain, so that their match [for their match-lock muskets] went out; and they had one man slain in the fight—an Englishman named John Colman—with an arrow shot into his throat, and two more hurt. It grew so dark that they could not find the ship that night, but labored to and fro on their oars. They had so great a stream that their grapnel [small anchor] would not hold them.

“The 7th was fair, and by ten of the clock they returned aboard of the ship and brought our dead man with them, whom we carried on land and buried, and named the point after his name, Colman’s Point. Then we hoisted in our boat and raised her side with waistboards for the defense of our men. So we rode still all night, having good regard to our watch.

“The 9th, fair weather. In the morning two great canoes came aboard full of men—the one with their bows and arrows and the other with the appearance of buying knives, to betray us; but we perceived their intent. We took two of them to hold them and put red coats on them, and would not suffer the others to come

near us. So they went on land, and two others came aboard in a canoe. We took one and let the other go; but the one which we had taken got up and leaped overboard. Then we weighed and went off into the channel of the river and anchored there all night.



Courtesy of Dr. Edward Hayaman Hall
THE HALF MOON IN NEW YORK HARBOR

This model of the Half Moon was carefully constructed to resemble as closely as possible the Half Moon used by Hudson. She was built in Holland at the time of the Hudson-Fulton Celebration at New York in honor of the 300th anniversary of Hudson's visit, and was sent as a gift to America on board an ocean liner—not because she could not sail across herself, but as a matter of convenience. The Half Moon was 80 tons only—a tiny vessel compared with modern ocean-going ships—63 feet long, about 16 in breadth, with a draft of about six or seven feet. Notice the curious gallery or beak-head at the bow, where the men could rest. It was a good place, too, to punish unruly sailors by throwing buckets of water on them. The figure-head was a red lion with golden mane. The bow of the ship was painted green, with red and yellow ornaments in the shape of little sailor's-heads. The sides of the poop were sky-blue with white clouds, and the high stern was beautifully carved and decorated. The Half Moon carried square sails except on the mizzen, where a lateen sail was used. At the maintop flew the flag of the United Provinces of the Netherlands; at the stern the flag of the Dutch East India Company.

UP THE RIVER AND BACK

"The 12th, very fair and hot. In the afternoon at two of the clock we weighed, the wind being variable between the north and northwest. So we turned into the river [the Hudson] two leagues, and anchored. This morning, at our first ride in the river, there came eight and twenty canoes full of men, women and children,

UPPER DECK OF HALF MOON LOOKING AFT

The Half Moon had two full decks and the poop deck you see in the picture. In the hold—below the lower deck — was stowed provisions, water-casks, cables, ballast, etc. Between the two decks was only about four feet; a man could not stand erect. The two heavy guns of the little ship were on this lower deck, one on each side; also a pantry, the kitchen and other small rooms. Behind a bulk-head or wall to the rear was the powder room and a storeroom for food. In between these was the tiller of the rudder. The ship was steered by a wooden handle fixed to this tiller which went up to the steering place on the upper deck. In the forecastle on the upper deck were the berths and quarters of the 18 or 20 men of the crew. Between

the fore- and mainmast was stowed one of the three small boats, about 12 feet long. Near the rails were two lighter guns. Back of the mainmast was a great wooden block or pulley carved in the shape of the bust and head of a man, for the ropes which raised the yards. Farther back were the windlass, the pump, and the shelter of the steersman, with a compass. Above the steersman and within his reach was the ship's bell. Behind him was the captain's cabin, with four windows, two in the stern. Among other things in the cabin were a globe, a cross-staff, an astrolabe, a compass, a silver sundial, an oil lamp and four matchlock muskets. It was into this cabin the Indians climbed and stole some articles, as related in the narrative. The mate's cabin was on the poop deck above.



Courtesy of Dr. Edward Hagaman Hall

to betray us; but we saw their intent and suffered none of them to come aboard of us. At twelve of the clock they departed. They brought with them oysters and beans, whereof we bought some. They have great tobacco-pipes of yellow copper and pots of earth to dress their meat in.

“The 15th, in the morning, was misty until the sun arose; then it cleared. So we weighed with the wind at south and ran up into the river twenty leagues, passing by high mountains [the Upper Highlands?]. We had a very good depth and great store of salmon in the river. This morning our two savages got out of a port and swam away. After we were under sail they called to us in scorn. At night we came to other mountains [the Catskills?] which lie from the river’s side. There we found very loving people and very old men, where we were well used. Our boat went to fish and caught great store of very good fish.

“The 20th [near the site of Albany] in the morning was fair weather. Our master’s mate with four other men went up with our boat to sound the river, and found two leagues above us only two fathoms of water and the channel very narrow, and above that place seven or eight fathoms. Toward night they returned; and we rode still all night. The one and twentieth was fair weather and the wind all southerly. We determined yet once more to go farther up into the river and try what depth and breadth it had; but many people came aboard so we went not this day. Our carpenter went on land and made a foreyard. And our master and his mate determined to try some of the chief men of the country, whether they had any treachery in them. So they took them down into the cabin and gave them so much wine and brandy that they were all merry. And one of them had his wife with him, who sat as modestly as any of our countrywomen would do in a strange place. In the end one of the Indians was drunk, who had been aboard of our ship all the time we had been there; and that was strange to them for they could not tell how to take it. The canoes and folk all went on shore; but some of them came again and

brought straps of beads and gave to him, so he slept all night quietly.

“The two and twentieth was fair weather. In the morning our master’s mate and four more of the company went up with our boat to sound the river higher up. The people of the country came not aboard till noon; but when they came and saw the savages well, they were glad. So at three of the clock in the afternoon they came aboard and brought tobacco and more beads, and gave them to our master, and made an oration and showed him all the country round about. Then they sent one of their company on land, who presently returned and brought a great platter full of venison, dressed by themselves; and they caused our master to eat with them. Then they made him reverence and departed, all save the old man that lay aboard. This night at ten of the clock our boat returned in a shower of rain from sounding the river. They found it to be at an end for shipping to go in, for they had been up eight or nine leagues [near the mouth of the Mohawk?] and found but seven foot of water. [What were they looking for?]

“The four and twentieth we weighed anchor and went down the river seven or eight leagues.

“The first of October in the morning we weighed at seven of the clock with the ebb and got down below the mountains, which was seven leagues. Then it fell calm and the flood was come, and we anchored at twelve of the clock. The people of the mountains came aboard us, wondering at our ship and weapons. We bought some small skins of them for trifles. This afternoon one canoe kept hanging under our stern with one man in it, which we could not keep away, who got up by our rudder to the cabin window and stole out my pillow, two shirts and two bandoleers. Our master’s mate shot at him and struck him on the breast and killed him. Whereupon all the rest fled away, some in their canoes, and leaped out of them into the water. We manned our boat and got our things again. Then one of them that swam got hold of our boat, thinking to overthrow it. But our cook took a sword and cut off one of his hands and he was drowned. By this time the ebb was

come and we weighed and got down two leagues. By this time it was dark. So we anchored in four fathoms water, and rode well. . . .

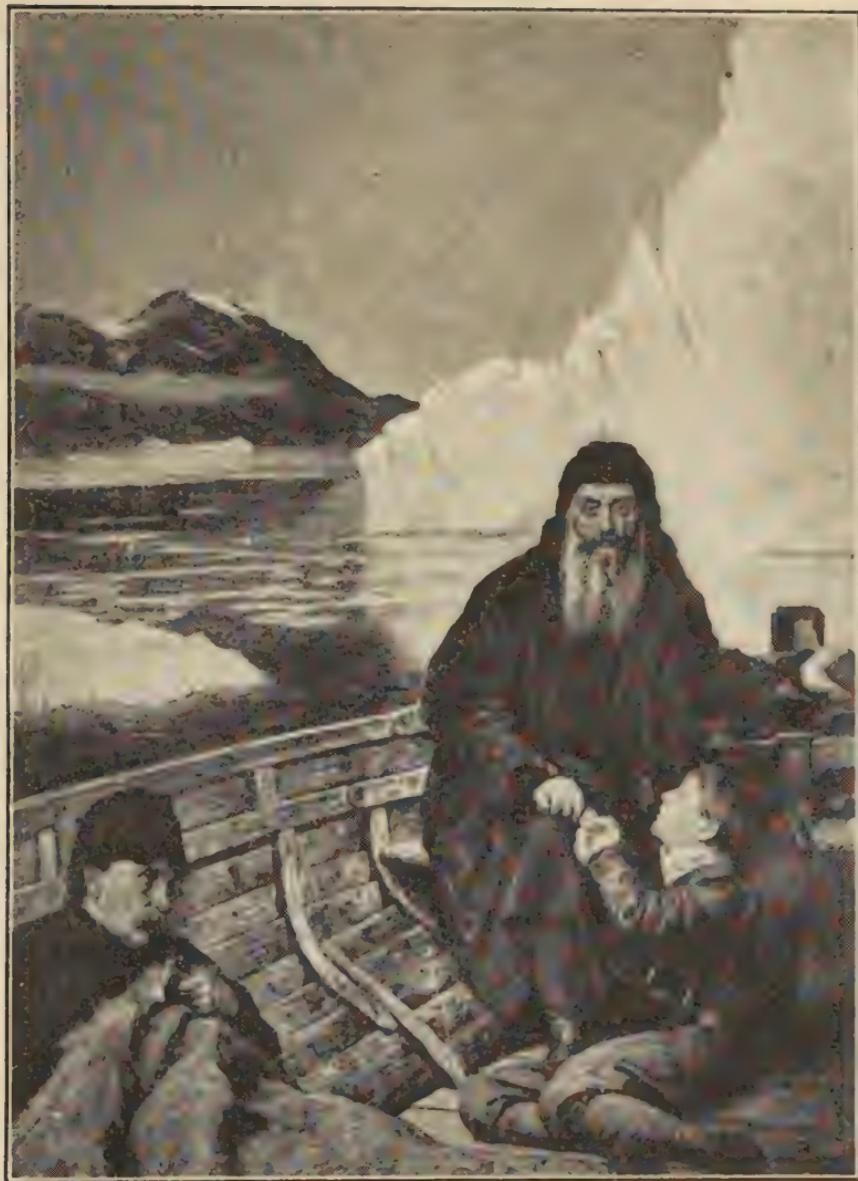
“The 4th was fair weather and the wind at north-northwest. We weighed and came out of the river into which we had run so far. . . . By twelve of the clock we were clear of all the inlet. Then we took in our boat and set our mainsail and spritsail and topsails, and steered away east off into the main sea. . . .

“We continued our course toward England, without seeing any land by the way, all the rest of this month of October, and on the seventh day of November, being Saturday, by the Grace of God, we safely arrived in the range of Dartmouth, in Devonshire, in the year 1609.”³⁸

On his arrival in England Hudson was commanded by King James to remain in his home country. He afterwards returned to the service of the Muscovy Company, and in the next year sailed upon his last voyage in search of a northern passage (see picture, next page).

QUESTIONS

1. What first made Hudson so well known as an explorer?
2. What were trading companies and which nations had these?
3. For whom was Hudson sailing on his third voyage, and what was his object?
4. How did it happen that he visited America?
5. What was his object in exploring the Hudson River?
6. Who was near the headwaters of the Hudson at about this time?
7. Had the New York Harbor been visited before Hudson?
8. What was the result of Hudson’s visit?
9. Can you find a good story of the fatal fourth voyage?
10. Show on your map the route of the third and fourth voyages. Can you find the routes of Hudson’s first two voyages and any stories about them?



Painting by John Collier

Courtesy of The Mentor Magazine

On his fourth and last voyage Hudson sailed from England in search of a northwest passage to the Indies. Although he did not find such a passage he did discover the great bay that bears his name. Provisions ran low and the crew mutinied. With his little son John and seven sick sailors, Hudson was placed in an open boat and cast adrift, never to be heard of again. This was in 1611. See the map on page 280 for the route of this voyage. The place where Hudson was cast adrift is marked.

THE END OF SIR WALTER RALEGH

The last story in this book is to be about the death of Sir Walter Raleigh. We have chosen this story as our last one because it takes us back to Europe and shows us something of the struggle that was still going on there between the two great nations that were striving for the control of the New World. Sometimes we study American history as if it had nothing to do with what was



Painting by J. E. Millais

BOYHOOD OF SIR WALTER RALEGH

Courtesy of The Mentor Magazine

happening in the home countries. This is a great mistake. All the discoverers and explorers were merely agents of the kings and queens and nations of Europe, and they could only do things in America because their nations were rich enough to send them out with ships and supplies, and strong enough to protect them from their enemies. It is for this reason that the history of Europe and America is so closely bound together.

Ralegh had found that his effort to plant English colonies in America was too early. The men he had sent out to Roanoke were really not as much interested in building a new England as they were in getting rich quickly by finding gold; and they found no gold. So Ralegh concluded that he must try in some part where gold was to be had if he was to interest his countrymen in the New World. He led an expedition to Guiana in South America in the heart of the Spanish territory, although Guiana itself had not yet been taken by the Spanish (see map, p. 246). Ralegh made friends with the Indians there, and returned to England with a story of a great gold mine of which he had heard. He never forgot that gold mine.

All this happened while Elizabeth was still queen and during the time of the great struggle with Spain, in which Ralegh had his share. When James of Scotland came down to be king of England at Elizabeth's death, a great change came in the fortunes of Ralegh. His enemies had filled the mind of the suspicious king with stories of Ralegh's plotting to place someone else upon the throne; Ralegh was given an unfair trial and was sent to the Tower of London, to spend twelve years of his life there.

In the Tower Ralegh busied himself with chemical experiments, with writing his great book, "The History of the World," and in thinking and writing about plans for an English nation in America. At one time he became hopeful of being pardoned, and of becoming the great Ralegh he once had been. The young Prince of Wales, who was to follow his father on the throne, made a hero of him and came to visit him in the Tower, where the two had wonderful talks about ships and the royal navy and plans for the glory of England. This generous young man did what he could to free his hero, but the King was stubborn and would not listen to him. Then the Prince died and Ralegh's hopes were dashed.

Nevertheless, Ralegh continued to plead for his liberty and for one more chance to do some great thing for England in the New World. He was an old man now and his health was broken.

He remembered the gold mine in Guiana and asked the King's permission to seek it and open it, promising him great wealth. At first James was afraid of offending the Spanish king, for his heart was set upon an alliance with that old enemy of England, who still seemed to him the greatest power in Europe. Finally he consented and Raleigh was to have his last great opportunity.

RALEGH'S FATAL EXPEDITION TO GUIANA, 1617

After serious delays the expedition got away in July, 1617. It was composed of 14 ships and 900 men. It cost every penny Raleigh had and more he was compelled to borrow. In the company was Raleigh's son. Landings were made at the Canaries for water and supplies, where there was a skirmish with the Spaniards. This was bad, for Raleigh had promised the King not to attack them, although they both must have known that a fight with the Spaniards was almost sure to happen somewhere on the expedition. Perhaps Raleigh thought the King did not quite mean what he said, and like Elizabeth, would not object to some punishment of the old enemy if the King himself could not be blamed for it.

The Spanish ambassador at London of course did everything in his power to put a stop to the expedition. He hectored and bullied the timid king until James told him every detail of Raleigh's plan and equipment. The information was hurried on to Madrid, where the Spanish king did not fail to warn his subjects in the New World of what was coming, and to make arrangements to thwart Raleigh. James assured the ambassador that Raleigh's plans were entirely peaceable, and that he meant merely to open mines in lands the English claimed because of Raleigh's earlier visit. But the wily ambassador would not be convinced and threatened all manner of evil consequences to the friendship of the two kingdoms. At last James promised that if any damage was done to his friend, the Spanish king, Raleigh should lose his life.

This assurance pleased the ambassador, for he was certain

that whatever happened he could make it appear that Spain had suffered. What he seems to have really wanted was to humble the English king before all Europe and to show that Spain was as great and powerful as ever. If he could compel King James to put to death one of his greatest subjects the power of Spain would be clear to all. So Raleigh had but one small chance of saving his life. He must find gold enough to win the firm support of his timid sovereign, and he must do this without causing any damage whatever to Spain. Let us now see what the outcome was.

THE ARRIVAL OF THE FLEET ON THE COAST OF GUIANA

From a letter of Raleigh to his wife:

Sweetheart: I can yet write unto you, but with a weak hand, for I have suffered the most violent fever for fifteen days that ever man did and lived. We had two most grievous sicknesses in our ship, of which forty-two have died, and there are yet many sick; but having found the land of Guiana this 12th November I hope they will recover. We are yet 200 men strong, and the rest of our fleet are reasonably strong—strong enough I hope to perform what we have undertaken. Howsoever, we must make the adventure. To tell you that I might be here king of the Indians were a vanity; but my name hath still lived among them [since his first visit there]. Here they feed me with fresh meat, and all that the country yields; all offer to obey me.

THE FIGHT WITH THE SPANISH ON THE ORINOCO

It is not quite clear who began the fight. The letter quoted below from a captain who took part in it, seems to imply that the English did; but Raleigh in the letter to his wife blames the Spanish. You will notice that the captain says the ships are going to turn to piracy on the way home. This Raleigh managed to prevent. St. Thomé, or St. Thomas, was a Spanish town near the gold-mine (see map, page 246). Captain Raleigh was Sir Walter's son. Captain Kemys was supposed to know where the mine was.

From a captain's letter to a friend :

Your departure from us was fortunate for you, as you thereby avoided great miseries. We left Cayenne for the Orinoco in company with the ships of Captains Whitney and Wollaston, a flyboat and a caravel; the flagship and the other larger vessels directing their course for Trinidad to await our return. We were a month ascending the Orinoco, and at length landed a league from St. Thomé. At one o'clock in the morning we made our assault and lost Captain Ralegh and Captain Cosmore, although Captain Ralegh was killed by his own carelessness.

Captain Cosmore led the forlorn hope with 50 men; I followed with the first companies of musketeers, and Ralegh came after me with the pikemen. As soon as Ralegh learned that we had made the assault he unwisely abandoned his post and command, and came to us, where, unfortunately, he was welcomed with a bullet. We at once took possession of the town with only a loss of two of our men. The Spaniards were not strong and fled, abandoning their governor. When we had the town in our hands, Captain Kemys took several gentlemen with him to find the mine and passed carelessly from one place to another for about twenty days, always holding out hopes to us that he would find it. But at last we discovered that it was all lies and deceit and that he was one who told the truth to no one.

We have already split into several parties. Captains Whitney and Wollaston agree together to sail in company on the seas, to waylay homeward-bound merchant ships; the flagship, vice-flagship, and Sir John Ferne, are going to Newfoundland to lay in fresh provisions, and thence to the western isles also to watch for homeward-bound ships. As for myself, with God's help, I also mean to make some voyage that will either give me a profit or a grave in the sea. Pray, therefore, tell my friends this. As I am in port I cannot write more, and I only pray to God that you may live prosperously.

22nd March.

From Ralegh's letter to his wife :

I was loath to write because I knew not how to comfort you; and God knows, I never knew what sorrow meant till now. All that I can say to you is, that you must obey the will and providence of God. Comfort your heart (dearest Besse), I shall sorrow for us both. I shall sorrow the less, because I have not long to live.

I have cleansed my ship of sick men and sent them home. I hope God will send us something ere we return. You shall hear from me, if I live, from the Newfoundland; where I mean to make clean my ships and revictual, for I have tobacco enough to pay for it. The Lord bless and comfort you, that you may bear patiently the death of your valiant son.

22nd March (1618), from the Isle of Christophers.

Yours,

W. RALEGH.



RALEIGH IN GUIANA

From an old print

Postscript: I protest before the majesty of God, that as Sir Francis Drake and Sir John Hawkins died heartbroken when they failed of their enterprise, I could willingly do the like, did I not contend against sorrow for your sake.

It is true that Kemys might have gone directly to the mine, and meant to. When he came back I told him that he had undone me, and that my credit was gone forever. He answered that when my son was lost and he left me so weak that he expected not to find me alive, he had no reason to enrich a company of rascals, who after my son's death made no account of him. He further told me that the English sent up into Guiana could hardly defend the Spanish town of St. Thomé which

they had taken and it was impossible to have victuals brought them into the mountains.

When I rejected all these arguments and told him that I must leave him to himself to explain it to the King and to the State, he shut himself up into his cabin and shot himself with a pocket pistol, which broke one of his ribs; and finding that this was not enough, he thrust a long knife under his short ribs up to the handle, and died.

For the rest, there never was a poor man so given over to the slaughter as I was. For being commanded [by King James] to set down, not only the country but the very river by which I was to enter it, to name my ships, number my men and my artillery—this was sent by the Spanish ambassador to his master, the king of Spain. The king wrote his letters to all parts of the Indies. The first letter bore the date of 19th of March, 1617, when I had not yet left the Thames. I have also two other letters of the king's, and one of his council. The king also sent a commission to levy 300 soldiers out of his garrisons of Porto Rico, with ten pieces of brass ordnance [cannon] to entertain us. He also prepared a fleet by sea to set upon us.

It were too long to tell you how we were preserved. If I live I shall make it known. My brains are broken and I cannot write much. Whitney, for whom I sold my plate at Plymouth, and to whom I gave more favor than all the captains of my fleet, ran from me at the Granadoes, and Wollaston with him; so I am now but five ships, and one of those I have sent home—my fly-boat—and in her a rabble of idle rascals, which I know will not spare to wound me; but I care not. I am sure there is not a base slave in the fleet who hath taken the pains and care that I have done; hath slept so little and suffered so much. My friends will not believe them; and for the rest I care not. God in heaven bless you and strengthen your heart. Your

W. RALEGH.

RALEGH'S RETURN: THE SPANISH AMBASSADOR
COMPLAINS TO KING JAMES

“Ralegh has arrived in Plymouth with all the property he has seized from my master's subjects. His Catholic Majesty will certainly see that when I persuaded him that Ralegh would do no harm, I was deceived. You are so great a king and so good a gentleman that you will admit that all Ralegh's acts of war and

damage were foretold to you a thousand times by me . . . and that I never ceased to urge forcibly that he should not be allowed to sail. Walter Ralegh has robbed, sacked and burnt, and murdered Spanish subjects, and has brought back with him enough wealth to make him and his supporters rich. Justice demands that Ralegh and all his companions should be hanged directly they set one foot on English soil, without waiting for them to set the other foot. I am quite sure the king, my master, would treat any of his vassals so if they had commenced this rupture."

THE DEATH OF RALEGH

King James was putty in the hands of the clever ambassador, who bullied him and his council until Ralegh's death was decreed. Ralegh's powerful friends did what they could to save him, but the King was bent on the alliance with the Spanish monarch and did as the ambassador bade him.

"After nightfall the devoted wife was brought to the Gatehouse to take a last leave of her husband. She, poor soul, had prayed and hoped up till now that he might be saved. Her boy, Carew Ralegh, had addressed a passionate appeal to the King for his father's life, and Lady Ralegh had continued to pray to her husband's friends and kinsmen on the Council to intercede for him. But it was all of no avail; and the only grace she could get was that his dead body should be delivered to her. In their last hours on earth together he told her he could not trust himself to speak of their dear little son; it would make the parting only the more bitter for them both. While they were thus communing, the clock of the Abbey boomed out the hour of midnight and the agonized wife was obliged to tear herself away.

"Through most of the night the prisoner mused and wrote, and drew up notes for his intended speech upon the scaffold. The Dean of Westminster was with him to the last.

" 'He was very cheerful that morning he died,' writes the

Dean, 'ate his breakfast heartily, and took tobacco, and made no more of his death than it had been to take a journey; and left a great impression in the minds of those that beheld him.'

"On the morning of the 29th October, 1618, Sir Walter Ralegh was led forth for the short walk from the Gatehouse to the scaffold in the Old Palace Yard. He wore a black velvet wrought gown over a brown satin doublet, with a ruff band and black taffety slashed breeches, with ash-colored silk stockings. It was still early—between seven and eight o'clock—but the news had spread that the famous man was to lose his life, and crowds of people had flocked to Westminster to see the sight.

"The story is thus told by the Spanish agent, Ulloa, to King Philip :

"They brought him on foot, surrounded by sixty guards, to the square at Westminster, near the palace, where the scaffold had been erected. When he ascended it he spoke, as I have been told, for three-quarters of an hour. When he ended his discourse the executioner, with his axe, cut off his head with two strokes, and held it up to the multitude. On the scaffold near Ralegh until he was beheaded were the Earl of Arundel, the Earl of Oxford, Lord Chamberlain, and the Earls of Doncaster and Northampton; and several members of the Council were present at a window, concealed behind the shutters. Ralegh's spirit never faltered, nor did his countenance change. On the contrary he was extremely brave through it all. The death of this man has produced a great commotion and fear here, and it is looked upon as a matter of the highest importance, owing to his being a person of great parts and experience—subtle, crafty, ingenious, and brave enough for anything. His supporters had declared that he could never be executed.'

"This is what Ralegh's enemies had to say. His friends were even more emphatic as to his noble bearing upon the scaffold. He called God to witness with his dying breath, that he was a loyal Englishman and had had no treaties with the French, and that his action in the Guiana expedition had been throughout

honest and sincere; then calmly and cheerfully prepared for the end.

‘I have a long journey to go,’ he said, as he put off his long



Painting by Leutze

Keystone View Co.

RALEIGH'S FAREWELL TO HIS WIFE

The picture represents Raleigh as a man of middle age. He was about sixty-five.

velvet gown and satin doublet; and then he asked the headsman to let him see the axe. ‘Dost thou think I am afraid of it?’ Then, smiling as he handed it back, he said to the sheriff, ‘This is a sharp medicine, but it is a sound cure for all diseases.’ When he was

asked which way he would lie upon the block, he replied, 'So the heart be right, it is no matter which way the head lies.' Then at two strokes the wise white head fell."³⁹

QUESTIONS

1. Why is the life of Raleigh important in the history of America?
2. How did he feel toward the power of Spain and what did he want England to do?
3. Under what two English sovereigns did Raleigh live? How was he regarded by these sovereigns? Why was this?
4. How did King James feel toward Spain?
5. Why was the expedition to Guiana so dangerous for Raleigh? Why did he lose his life?
6. What kind of a man does Raleigh seem to have been?
7. Locate on your map the place visited by Raleigh on his expedition to South America.
8. Can you find some true stories about Raleigh?

REVIEW OF PART FOUR

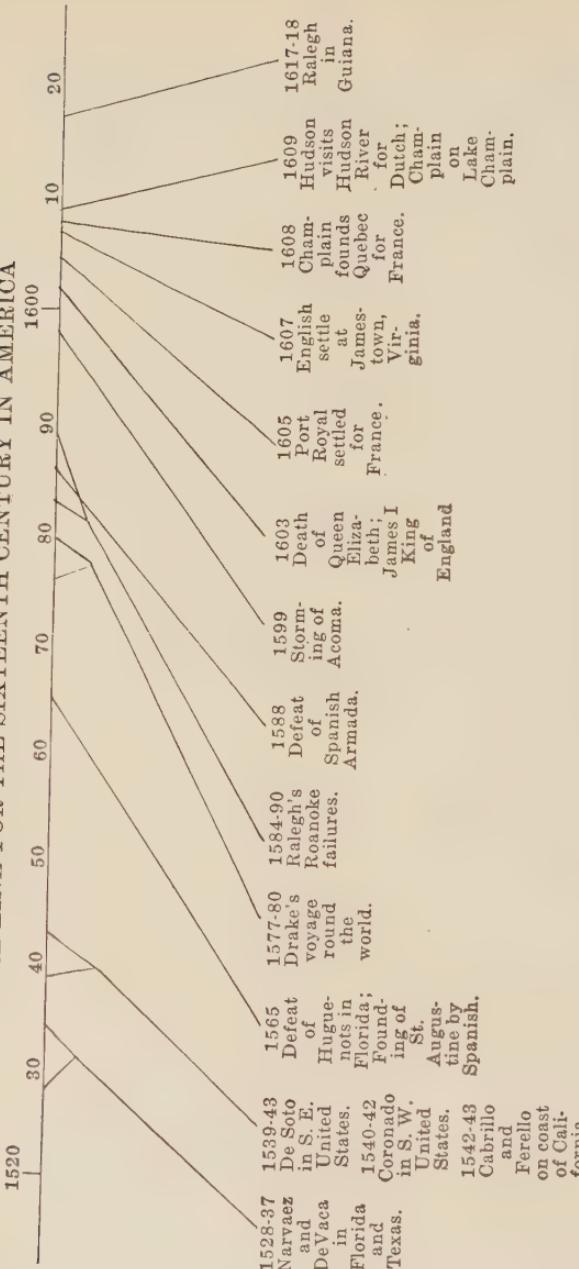
The story of Part Four has had to do with the struggle of the rival nations of Europe, during the later sixteenth and early seventeenth centuries, to possess the New World. We have noticed that for the first two-thirds of the sixteenth century Spain was the most powerful nation in Europe, and that she had had pretty much her own way in America. She had possession of the West Indies, Central America, and South America (excepting Brazil). Her explorers had also carried her banners into those lands we now call southern United States. The efforts of the French Huguenots to share Florida with her she put down with a stern hand. Even after the defeat of her great fleet in the English Channel Spain still continued to extend her boundaries in New Mexico and the Southwest.

But her defeat upon the sea by the English seamen was the beginning of her decline. Thereafter, try as she might to convince

the world of her undiminished strength, Spain steadily grew weaker. This was the opportunity of three northern nations that had meanwhile grown richer and stronger. Even in the years leading up to Spain's defeat on the sea, Hawkins and Drake and the other great English captains were plundering her shipping and terrifying her seaports. During these same years Gilbert and Raleigh had dared to propose an English nation in America, and had actually sent out their unsuccessful colonizing expeditions to Newfoundland and Carolina.

By the early seventeenth century all three of the northern nations were ready to demand a share in the New World. France led the way, first in Acadia, and later on the St. Lawrence. England followed immediately with the permanent settlement at Jamestown in Virginia. And then came Hudson for Holland, to make the place for a new Netherlands.

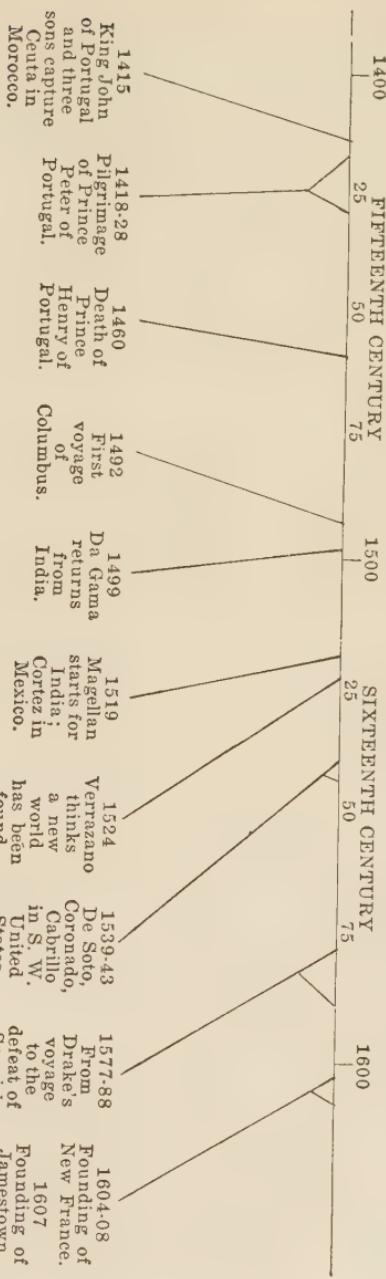
TIME LINE FOR THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY IN AMERICA



QUESTIONS

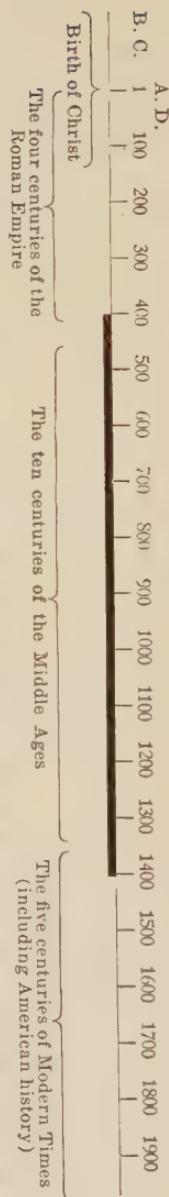
1. The first great Spanish expeditions into the territory of the United States were made in which half of the sixteenth century?
2. The great struggle between Spain and England came in which quarter of the century?
3. The first permanent French and English settlements were made in what part of the seventeenth century?
4. What permanent settlement had been made within the territory of the United States before this? How long before?
5. What three important events happened in the year 1609?
6. What three Spanish expeditions were being made at the same time?

GENERAL REVIEW: TIME LINE FOR THE BOOK



1. How many centuries are covered by the stories of the book?
2. How many centuries have there been since the end of the second of these?
3. In which of these centuries did Columbus have his training? In which part of it?
4. Which is the century of the Portuguese search for a sea route to the Indies by way of Africa? In which century did it require to discover this route?
5. In which century did Columbus make his discoveries in the West?
6. In which century were the lands in the West found to be a New World? What part of this century was required to make this discovery?
7. In which century were the European nations having their religious troubles? What part of the century?
8. In which century was New Spain built up? Were any permanent English or French settlements made in this century?
9. When did the great quarrel between England and Spain take place?
10. In what century were the first English and French settlements made? In what part of this century? Why were they so late?

TIME LINE FOR THE YEARS SINCE THE BIRTH OF CHRIST



BEFORE FOURTEEN HUNDRED

The time line on this page shows where the Fifteenth Century came in the long stretch of time that reached from the year 1 to the present day. Even our youngest readers will know that the beginning of year 1 was not the beginning of the world, which was millions of years ago, or even the beginning of the history of people, which was thousands of years ago. Year 1, of course, marks the time when Christ was born in Palestine.

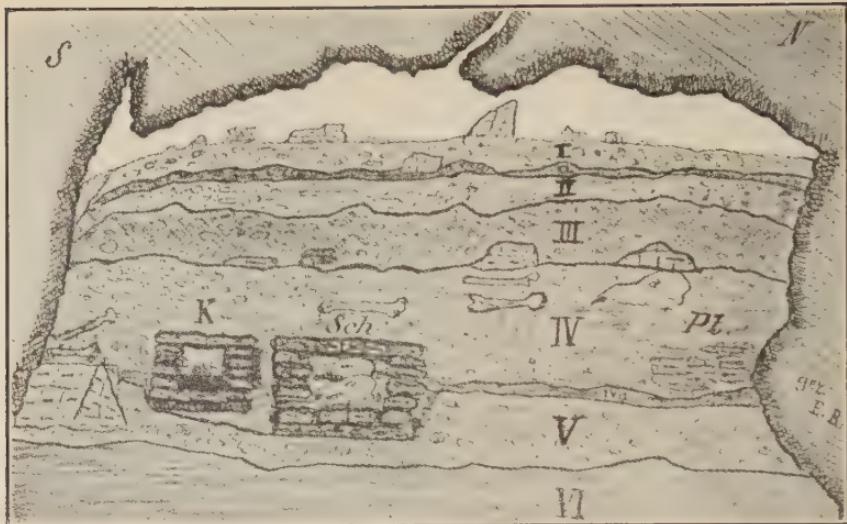
In order that we may better imagine the length of time since the beginning of year 1, let us suppose that a child was born on the first day of that year and lived just one hundred years. A few persons do live that long. Then let us suppose that on the day this man died another child was born who lived just one hundred years, and on the day he died another child was born who lived one hundred years, and so on down to today. It is clear that there has been time since the beginning of year 1 for nineteen such lifetimes and a part of the twentieth. Therefore, if we should draw a picture of nineteen persons standing in a row, each one hundred years old, we should have a diagram for the nineteen Christian centuries.

But the year 1 marks only the beginning of Christian times or the Christian Era, and is really quite late in the history of people. Many important things had happened before this. If we go back far enough in the story of men, we come to a time when they had nothing but their hands to defend themselves with, to obtain food,

or to satisfy their other wants. They had neither fire nor clothing. They did not know how to build a hut or make a bow and arrow, or even to fish. They could not cultivate the soil and grow things for food. They had tamed none of the animals. They did not understand how to bake clay for pots and dishes. They had neither spears nor other weapons—perhaps nothing more than a rough club or a handy stone. Metal they had not heard of, nor for a long time the use of flint for making tools. Probably they had no real language. For food they roamed about in search of roots, seeds and wild fruits, and for the game they could easily catch. They slept where darkness found them, doubtless filled with fear at the terrifying noises of the night.

There was a time when each of the things we have mentioned, and all the other things that make up our civilized way of living, had to be first discovered or invented, for of course there was no one to teach them. Perhaps each new thing was first noticed by some lucky accident, perhaps by some bright man or woman who found it out by doing a little thinking. In any case, once the new thing was discovered it was handed on down the ages, for the children would learn it from their parents, and these children would teach it to their children, and so on without end. Neighboring groups of people would also learn of it and pass it on to others, till it was spread far and wide over the world. Slowly the number of inventions and discoveries would grow until so much had been found out that we call it a civilization.

Long before they learned the use of metals like copper, tin and iron, men chiefly employed stone—along with wood, bone and horn—in the making of their tools and weapons. These long periods are therefore called Stone Ages. There were several of these because new and better ways of using stone were gradually discovered, and with each great improvement a new stone age is said to have begun. But these changes from one stone age to another were very slow and gradual, and must be thought of as taking place through hundreds of years. And it must not be supposed that the people of a new stone age gave up the use of



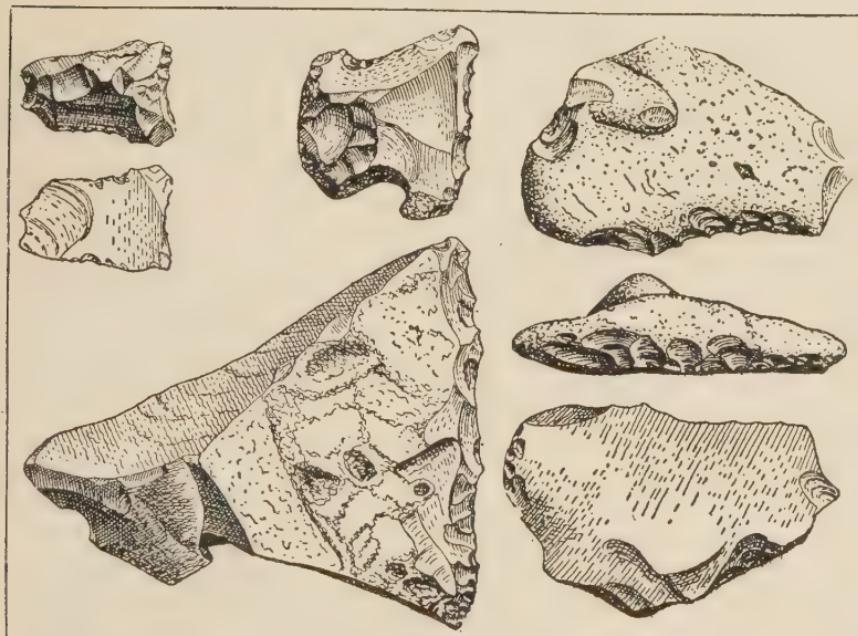
A STONE AGE CAVE

Showing six layers or deposits each representing thousands of years. Notice the hearth and bones in the fourth layer.



PART OF THE CIRCLE OF GREAT STONES SET UP BY THE PEOPLE OF THE LATE STONE AGE AT STONEHENGE IN ENGLAND

all the older things; they of course kept on using any tool or weapon until a better one was invented. When at last the use of copper was discovered, and especially the use of bronze (a harder metal made of copper with some tin), the change to the Age of Metals took place. Because copper soon gave way to bronze, the



After Rutor

MAN'S FIRST TOOLS

Rough stones with a cutting edge held in the hand

first great age of metal was the Bronze Age. This was followed by the Age of Iron when men discovered how to extract that metal from iron ore. In a general way we may say that with the coming of bronze, many other civilized things appeared, such as a form of writing and the potter's wheel, so that the opening of the Bronze Age is usually regarded as the real beginning of civilization.

This most important change in the history of men, from a late stone age to one of real civilization, occurred along three great rivers—the Nile in Egypt and the Tigris and Euphrates in southwestern Asia—and also in the lands and islands of the Aegean Sea. Perhaps it took place first along the three rivers and afterwards spread to the neighboring lands. It is difficult to say. Perhaps it would be better to think of all these lands as making one region where a people of a late stone age were especially fortunate and inventive, and quickly passed their new ideas from one part to another. In any case, it is safe to say that the people of the rest of the world were still living in one or other of the stone ages while the people of this region were making the first important steps in civilization.

In northern Europe, for example, people were at this time living in what we shall call the Late Stone Age. There were now villages of huts along the water-ways, on the lakes, or near the inlets of the sea. The huts were made of woven reed daubed with mud. In simple boats made from hollowed logs men gathered oysters, mussels and other shellfish. With bone fishhooks and harpoons of staghorn they caught the fish. Along with the wooden, bone and chipped flint tools of the earlier stone ages they now had tools of polished stone, for they had learned to polish and sharpen these on other stones. They had a great variety of these stone tools, almost as many as a modern carpenter, including a stone axe to which they lashed a handle. Their chief weapon was the bow and arrow, the arrowheads of flint. With these weapons they hunted the deer, the bison, the wild boar and many other animals. They brought the meat home and cooked it at the camp-fires before devouring it. They then tossed the bones aside for the dogs to gnaw at, for dogs had long since become the companions of men.

Some of the more advanced people of the Late Stone Age lived in villages of huts resting on piles driven into the bottom of lakes, where they could protect themselves by withdrawing the bridges which joined them to the shore. When the water is very

low in these lakes remains of the piles may still be seen, and in the bottoms of the lakes men of our time have found many of the things the lake-dwellers used. These people were no longer hunters only; they had learned simple farming. They had learned that seeds could be planted in the ground and cared for until the harvest. Perhaps they stirred the earth with a pole to which a



After R. R. Schmidt

From McCurdy's *Human Origins*

PILE DWELLINGS IN GERMANY
Built to resemble those of the Late Stone Age

stag's horn was fixed. The people of the Late Stone Age had tamed the wild cattle, sheep, goats and pigs. They were eating the flesh of these animals and using the hides for many purposes. In time they learned the use of milk. Apparently the cat had not been tamed; it seems first to have been tamed in Egypt. Chickens were not kept. These and the tamed horse are said to have come

from Asia later. The grains raised by the people of Europe were chiefly wheat and barley. The grain was roasted, ground between stones, and stored in pots of baked clay or woven weeds, for something was known of plaiting and weaving. Peas, strawberries,



Restored according to the directions of Professor Rutor of Brussels

MAN OF THE LATE STONE AGE

Notice the stone axe, dagger and arrows, and the bone ornaments

wild pears and crab-apples were eaten, but not the larger apples we know; these are the result of later cultivation. The people adorned themselves with shells. They dressed in skins, and in a rough cloth made from the flax they grew, from which they also made crude fish-nets.

The people of the Late Stone Age had a simple religion. They feared and made sacrifices to nature-gods and spirits. They had

their priests and religious gatherings. They built tombs of immense stones heaped about with earth. They also set up, as monuments or objects of worship, huge stones, either singly or in rows and circles. To build these massive things there must have been large groups of people living together, perhaps in towns ruled over by powerful men who thus made the beginnings of government. They may have held religious festivals and games between the lines and within the circles of their massive stone monuments. They practiced a rude surgery. Some trading grew up among the different communities, sometimes in goods from a distance—perhaps at simple fairs where the goods were exchanged, for there were no coins. Doubtless the different groups robbed and made war upon one another. The stone-age people probably made up stories and fancies about the world, which they passed on to their children.

THE FIRST CIVILIZATIONS

All that we have been saying of the men of the Late Stone Age has been learned from the tools, weapons and other hard things that would not decay when buried for thousands of years in the ground. But with the invention of writing men left accounts of what had happened on baked clay tablets—if they had no other material—or upon monuments of stone, or even upon paper made from papyrus reed, as the Egyptians did. These writings often described pictures of great events or daily occupations made on the same clay tablets or monuments. When modern men learned to read these languages—for they were forgotten for centuries—they were able to piece the stories together and so build up a history of the ancient world. They also learned much from the tombs, for the ancient peoples were great tomb builders. The Egyptians, for example, believed that as long as the body remained the soul could use it and live quite as it had before death. So the body of the dead was embalmed and carefully placed in a chamber of rock, where it was surrounded with everything to which the living person was accustomed. The most remarkable

of these tombs were the pyramids of the kings or pharaohs, although there were thousands of smaller tombs of the nobles and wealthy people. The king had his own pyramid built during his lifetime, by the forced labor of thousands of slaves through many years. In the painting on the opposite page the artist shows a visit of inspection by some great person, perhaps the king himself.

In 1922 a most interesting tomb was found in a dry Egyptian valley containing many other royal tombs. Because many of the older tombs of the pharaohs had been opened and plundered by robbers, later pharaohs took great pains to conceal the entrances. The entrance to this tomb was so deeply buried that it was discovered only after the most thorough searching. The tomb is that of King Tutankhamen, who lived 3300 years ago. When the entrance had been cleared of sand and rubbish and the sealed doorway opened, a rock-cut passage way was found leading down at a steep angle some twenty-five feet. At the bottom was another sealed doorway, but there were signs that robbers had entered by means of a small hole which afterwards had been closed and sealed by officials. The robbers had entered the first chamber within, and had scattered the contents about in the greatest confusion in their search for precious small articles they could carry away.

In this first chamber of the tomb was found a bewildering collection of rich and beautiful things that tell much of the life of the kings of ancient Egypt. There were sculptures, statues of the King, carvings of ivory, ebony and gold; a throne, war chariots, animal-shaped couches, musical instruments, alabaster vases, embroideries, delicate jewel-work, ordinary household articles, food-stuffs, such as ducks, geese and venison. When the inner chamber was at last opened, a huge box-like shrine was discovered, covered with gold-leaf and inlaid porcelain. Inside was a smaller shrine, containing the sealed sarcophagus, and within this the golden mummy-case or coffin, richly adorned and bearing a figure of the King. This held the mummy or embalmed body, the hands clasped



Painting by Richter

BUILDING THE PYRAMIDS

on the breast, a golden crown on the head, two gold-hilted swords and two knives with golden handles strapped to the side. With the body of the King were many beautifully worked ornaments and toilet articles, mostly of gold, and decorated with precious stones and enamel. The body was found to be that of a youth of sixteen or eighteen years.



From a photograph

Keystone View Co.

ENTRANCE TO THE TOMB OF KING TUTANKHAMEN

The things found in this tomb indicate a high state of civilization and show that Egyptian civilization was very old when King Tutankhamen lived, and he lived fourteen centuries before the birth of Christ and when the people of northern Europe were barbarians.

It is not surprising that early civilizations grew up along the Nile, the Tigris and the Euphrates rivers. Here the rich soil left

by the yearly overflow of these rivers and the all-year-round supply of water enabled men to grow regular and abundant crops of grain. Instead of wandering about in search of wild pastures and game, they could settle down for good to peaceful farming and trading. The increase in the number of people made dense populations that could ordinarily defend themselves against their less



From a photograph

Keystone View Co.

CARRYING FOOD-STUFFS FROM TUTANKHAMEN'S TOMB

numerous and less civilized neighbors. More lasting houses of brick or stone took the place of frail huts. Cities with their temples and palaces were built. Men learned to carry the water of the river in trenches to more remote land, and so to extend and improve the farming country. The warm sunshine encouraged trees and fruits. The wild beasts were killed off. The great populations of the cities required kings and priests and government officials, who made laws, gave justice and collected taxes. Armies were built up for the conquest of neighboring people and

to keep them in subjection. As these civilizations grew older, men learned to divide their labor into special occupations and to improve their trades and crafts. Writing and fine arts were developed. The priests had time to watch the heavens and to make the small beginnings of science, and to imagine great stories and myths to explain the wonderful world about them. In the management of the great irrigation works and in the building of the massive pyramids and monuments they made the beginnings of engineering.

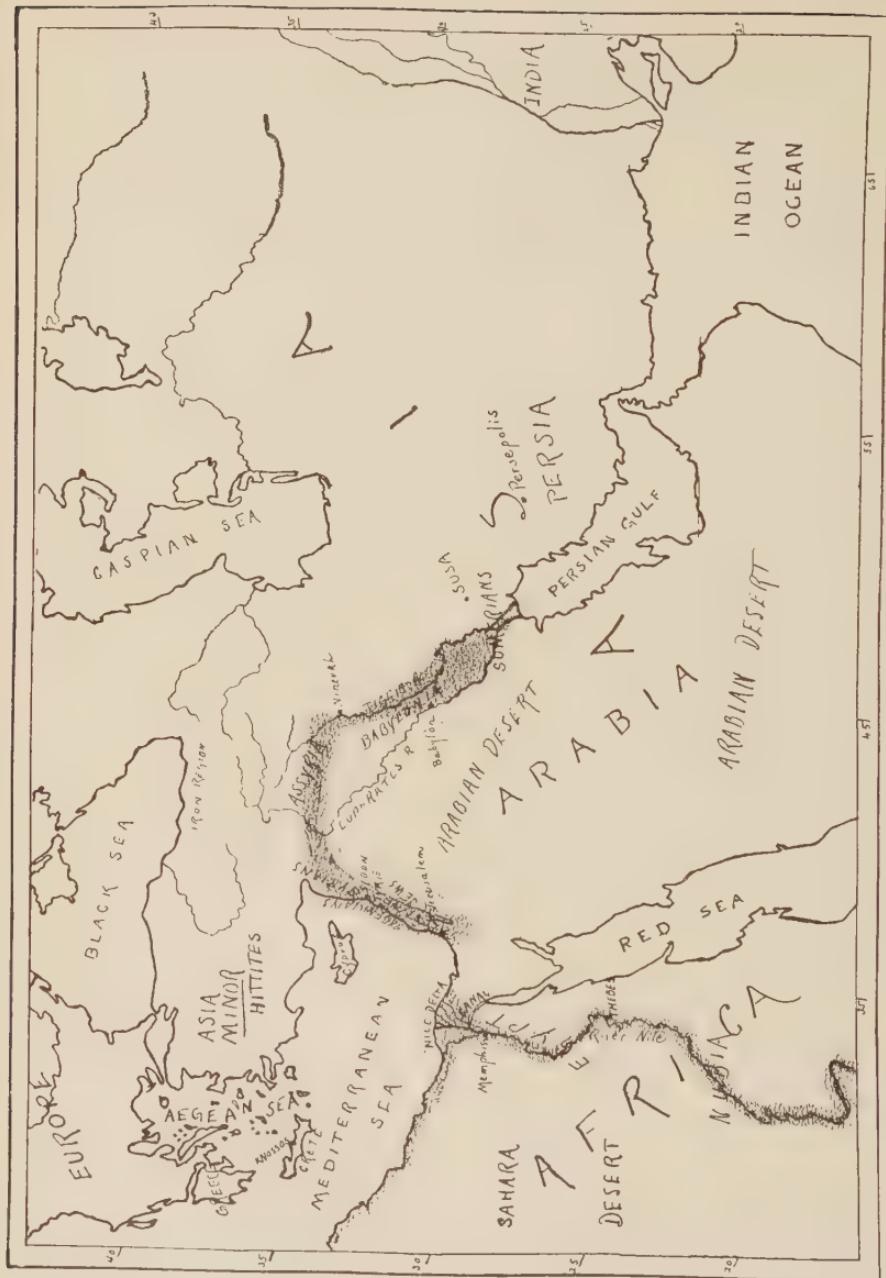
But just because these settled people of the great river valleys were so well-off and so comfortable, they were objects of envy to the races of men that lived about them. Over and over again these more warlike people joined together to make great armies that swept down on the new civilizations and overwhelmed them. But after the conquest had been made, and as time passed, the conquerors adopted the more attractive life of the cities and themselves became more civilized, only to be conquered in their turn by later comers from the hills, the mountains and the grass-lands. Thus in the Tigris-Euphrates region there was a series of civilized empires, one after another. The oldest was that of the Sumerians which gave way to the Babylonian. This in turn was followed by the Assyrian, which was taken over by the Chaldean. At last came the greatest of all, the Persian, which took in the whole western civilized world. Each of these empires absorbed the civilization of the one before it and added something of its own. The smaller nearby peoples that were meanwhile growing civilized suffered much from these more powerful neighbors (see map, p. 374). The most interesting of these smaller nations to Europeans and Americans is that of the Jews in the land of Palestine, for out of that land came the idea of one God and the religion which, in the form of Christianity, was afterwards accepted by the people of Europe. The story of the Jews is told in the Old Testament of the Bible, and from it we learn how much their life was disturbed by the powerful empires of which they often formed a part. This succession of empires was

taking place during the 3000 years preceding the birth of Christ. The beginnings of civilization were, of course, much earlier.

It was in the great empires of Egypt and Asia and in the islands of the Aegean Sea that civilization first grew up and at last reached over into barbarous Europe. But before telling of this, let us briefly notice some of the important things that were given to civilization by these ancient empires. It is not possible to speak with certainty of the exact place of origin of some of the things to be mentioned because the facts are hard to learn, and even the men who spend their lives studying them do not always agree. It may be, therefore, that certain of them really came to Europe from regions other than those we shall name, or were even invented or discovered in Europe itself.

From Egypt, we are told, came copper implements and ornaments, gold, beads, emery for polishing vases, inlaid work and jewelry; the potter's wheel and fine pottery; glazed earthenware and glass; ships, stone buildings, stone vases, the use of lead, silver and turquoise; fine linen and tapestry; the making of portrait statues; the calendar of the year upon which our own is based; the use of pen, ink and paper; the ideas of north, south, east and west; the first knowledge of the body, disease and medicine; ideas about the sky, the sun and religion, about plants and animals. Caravans of donkeys had brought to Egypt from lower Africa, ebony, ivory, ostrich feathers and fragrant gums. In fact some scholars think Egypt was the real birthplace of civilization and from that country it spread to the rivers in Asia and elsewhere. But as to this we cannot yet be sure.

Let us now see what southwestern Asia probably gave to civilization. First, bronze, a harder metal than copper from which better tools and weapons were made. A still more important gift was that of iron, the most useful metal men have ever known. From Asia came the plow, the tamed horse and the wheeled chariot, which some of the eastern conquerors seem to have brought with them. We must notice, however, that crude wheels have been found very early in the history of Europe. Because the



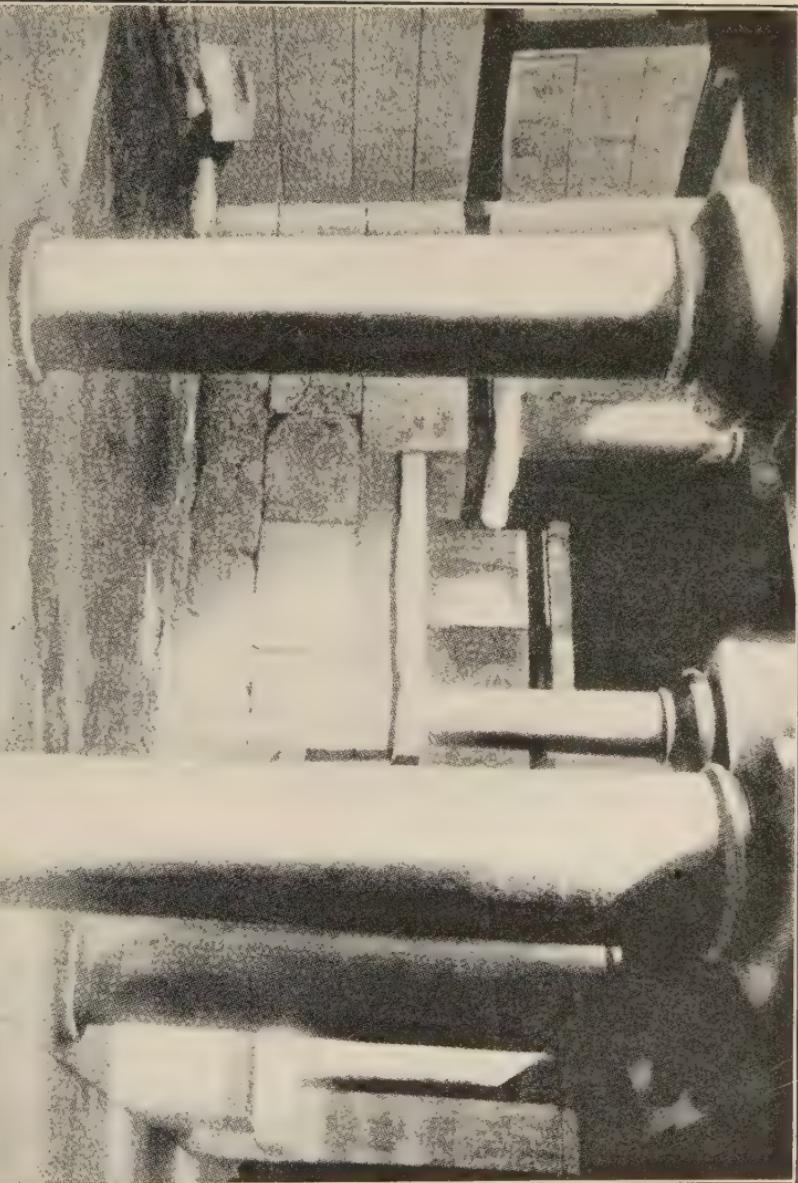
LANDS OF EARLY CIVILIZATION
The shaded areas represent the fertile regions near the great rivers

people of Asia were great traders, they needed a handy form of counting and writing for keeping their accounts. They therefore made multiplication tables, and developed an alphabet, as we call it, which provides a form of writing in which each sound of the voice has a sign. This permits the writing down of any word one can speak, and was a great improvement over the picture-writing and clumsier word-signs of the older forms. This alphabet, with some changes, has come down to us.

Other gifts from the traders of Asia were the use of coins as money, ideas of counting and business methods. From India was passed on to Europe the use of tamed birds or poultry for food, and the cotton plant from which so many of our fabrics are made; from China came silk and porcelain. From Asia, too, has come our habit of dividing the circle into 360 equal parts, the week of seven days, the 12-hour day and 12-hour night, the habit of dividing the hour into sixty minutes, the foot into twelve inches; in buildings, the use of the arch. The mistaken idea that human events can be foretold from the stars (astrology) was first practiced in Asia or Egypt, and lead to some true knowledge of the heavens. The five planets, Mercury, Venus, Jupiter, Mars and Saturn, were known and named, although the names were afterward changed into the Latin of the Romans. Certain eclipses could be foretold; comets and meteors were noticed; stars and star-groups were located and named. There were immense libraries of clay tablets in the cities of the Euphrates Valley. Great myths about the world and its history were created and passed on to us. The vast empires we have spoken of required elaborate schemes of government, which were known and used by the later European conquerors. Whether or not any great good to civilization was so rendered, we should notice also that the warring despots of these empires developed the art of war, introduced metal helmets and metal weapons, the war chariot and war machines. These things were taken over later by European warriors.

THE FIRST CIVILIZATION IN EUROPE

We left northern Europe in the Late Stone Age while we stopped to notice the beginnings of civilization elsewhere. Let us now see how civilization first appeared in Europe and what was done with it there. If you will look at the map on page 374, you will notice that the parts of Europe nearest Egypt and southwestern Asia are the islands and coasts of Greece, and especially the island of Crete. Now in these lands have been found the earliest remains of civilization in Europe. In fact these remains date back so far in time that they have to be placed alongside those of Egypt and the region of the Euphrates among the earliest signs of civilization. It is quite possible of course, and perhaps likely, that the beginnings of civilization came to the islands of the Aegean Sea from the regions of the great rivers, but of this we cannot be sure. It would seem that the first use of bronze, for example, arose along the Euphrates River and then passed over to Egypt. In a few centuries it is known to have been used in Crete and the neighboring islands, and it may be that there came with it to these islands the potter's wheel and the other civilized things that belong to the Bronze Age. Whatever the truth of this may be, for over two thousand years a civilization was growing in Crete and on the shores of the Aegean differing in many respects from those which were developing during the same long period in Egypt and southwestern Asia. It was a civilization of the Bronze Age, for by the time of the coming of iron—about 1200 B. C.—the great days of the Aegean civilization were over. Throughout this period of two thousand years spears, daggers, saws, nails, fishhooks, kettles and similar things were made of bronze. Wealthy cities grew up from the sea-trade that was carried on in these regions. The most important of these for a long time was Knossos on the northern coast of Crete. Here the Cretan sea-kings built stately palaces, splendidly adorned with colonnades, fine stairways and wide courts. Their walls were painted with beautiful scenes of Cretan life and surroundings, more life-like and natural than those of Egypt. The houses of the nobles



PART OF THE EXCAVATED PALACE OF THE SEA-KINGS OF CRETE AT KNOSSOS

were commodious, comfortable and highly adorned. They had many of our modern luxuries and conveniences. In the ruins of the palace of the kings have been found the remains of bathrooms and sanitary drain pipes.

The Cretan artisans made fine pottery adorned with striking designs, as well as delicate cups and tableware. They worked in ivory and porcelain, and there were thriving industries in such things. On the Cretan farms were raised abundant crops and fine animals, by the labor of serfs who had little freedom. There were rich and poor people, nobles and commoners. Although the cities were not walled, the Cretans had many warriors and war-galleys, equipped with metal armor, weapons and war chariots. The people loved festivals, where boxing and a form of bullfighting were among their favorite sports. They enjoyed music and dancing, and played a kind of chess. They had a religion of their own, with many gods and deities. They had a peculiar form of writing, which, by the way, modern scholars have not yet learned to read. The dresses of the Cretan ladies were astonishingly modern, and in many ways the life of the wealthy among these ancient Cretans seems to belong to our own times.

All in all, this early civilization which grew up on the islands and shores of the Aegean Sea was very remarkable, when we remember that much of Europe was still lingering in the Late Stone Age. Its influence spread away from the sea-coast and touched the lives of the ruder people of the interior lands. Cretan trading galleys carried along the coasts such astonishing things as decorated jars of pottery, blue-glaze beads, daggers and axe-heads of bronze. The stone-age people of the interior parts of Europe must have been amazed at the sight of such things and at the tales of these great trading galleys, and have wondered at the stories of the wealthy and populous countries across the seas.

THE CIVILIZATION OF THE GREEKS

The next step in the history of European civilization takes us to the mainland of Greece. We have noticed that the Greek shores



After the original in the British Museum

THE ROSETTA STONE

This stone was dug up in 1799 by Napoleon's army while building a fort in Egypt. At the top is the old Egyptian writing, in the middle a later Egyptian writing, and at the bottom the Greek, all three saying the same thing. The Greek enabled scholars to learn to read the Egyptian writings, which tell many things about the civilization of ancient Egypt.

were affected by the kind of life that flourished in Crete. There were walled cities in Greece where the Cretan luxuries and refinements were welcomed. Doubtless Cretan artisans moved there and taught their remarkable crafts to the people of Greece. But the people of Greece were not Cretans; they were a race known as Greeks. The Greeks seem to have been a mixture of the older population of the land with some vigorous strangers from the north. These strangers were half-civilized herdsmen who came down into the peninsula at different times, driving their cattle before them and carrying their families in rude carts drawn by horses. They already knew about iron but had no writing. They mixed with the older races and supplied them with many of their leaders and chieftains, and in the course of time gave them their language. Being herdsmen they did not at once settle into agriculture and take to seafaring. The chieftains built the walled cities we have mentioned and came under the influence of the more refined Cretan life from across the sea. When they had become well established in their new life, many of them went on plundering expeditions about the Aegean Sea. They seem to have raided and sacked the older Cretan cities on the islands about them, and evidently plundered and burnt famous Knossos. While they learned much from the Cretans, they had ideas and habits of their own, so that the civilization which they later built up was in many ways new and different. Naturally they learned many things from trading with the older civilized peoples to the south and the east of them—the Phoenician sea-traders and the people of Egypt and Asia Minor.

The Greek tribes usually settled down about some hill that could easily be fortified against their surrounding enemies and the Cretans. The hill became the fortress and residence of the chieftain; about it grew up the villages of the tribes that cultivated the surrounding lands. The whole settlement came to be a tiny nation by itself, or a city-state. In time there were hundreds of these city-states scattered along the shores of the Mediterranean, even as far as Spain (see map, p. 397), for colonies

left the home cities to set up little independent cities of their own. Some of these daughter cities grew to be rich and powerful. The largest and most flourishing of all, however, was Athens on the Greek mainland. The picture on page 382 shows the ruins of the fortified hill or acropolis of Athens, upon which stood the beautiful temple to Athena, the goddess of the city. This temple, known as the Parthenon, was destroyed in good part by explosions of gunpowder in fairly recent wars. Thousands of tourists from all parts of the world each year visit these ruins to admire their striking beauty and to think about the remarkable civilization they represent. For here, several hundreds of years before the birth of Christ, the people of Athens, under the leadership of a few great men, brought to a climax the first distinctly European civilization, founded upon borrowings from the Cretans and from Egypt and Asia but new and original in a thousand ways.

The Greeks added so many things to the sum of civilization that it would require a long list to take account of them. They were much more like ourselves than the people of Egypt and Asia, because we have with us today so much of what they discovered or invented. They were especially sensitive to beauty, so that almost everything they made was more artistic and natural than similar things of Asia and Egypt. Their marble statues of the human body are carefully preserved in our museums because of their peculiar excellence. Their buildings were so fine and pleasing to the eye that many of our great buildings today are made to resemble them. Greek plays are still given in our theatres, which resemble the old Greek theatres more or less; our great modern plays grew out of the tragedies and comedies of the Greeks. Our stadiums are Greek, and many of our ideas and practices in athletics. Every American boy knows of the Olympic games that are now being held at different places once in four years. These are modeled upon the sacred games that were held at Olympia in ancient Greece. For centuries the Greek language was taught in the schools of Europe—and still is taught there and in America—so that the fascinating stories of the gods and other

Courtesy of The Macmillan Co.

THE RUINS OF THE ACROPOLIS AT ATHENS

From Gardner's Ancient Athens



Greek writings might be read in the ancient Greek language—a language that expressed thought and feeling as few languages do. Many of our words come from this language, such as physician, chorus, poetry, drama, history, critic, idea. The Greeks made important additions to music, and the speeches of their orators are still regarded as among the greatest that ever have been made.

The Greeks introduced into the world the idea of political liberty regulated by law, for they did not accept the form of government of the Eastern empires in which one man held all the power. They fought bravely in the defense of their city-states, set limits to the power of their rulers, and struggled for their rights in government. In time government by all the citizens grew up in the Greek cities, what we today should call “democracy,” except for the great body of slaves that worked for the citizens and supplied them with their comfort and leisure. The great Greek thinkers left us important books that deal with good and bad forms of government, and how the education of young people can be made to bring about a better kind of social life.

The greatest gift of the Greeks remains to be mentioned. The people of Egypt and Asia valued knowledge mostly for its help in doing useful things, but the Greeks loved it for its own sake. They were the first people in history to develop the habit of free, clear and deep thinking—about plants and animals and the human body, about the heavens and the earth, about numbers, angles, surfaces and solids, about nations and peoples, good and bad, and the nature of the world. It is because of this habit that most of the studies we have in our schools and colleges today were first well started by the Greeks, from the slight beginnings made in Egypt and Asia, where learned Greeks traveled. This is why so many of these studies have Greek names, like astronomy, geology, geography, geometry, biology, botany, zoölogy, physics, philosophy, psychology. All these studies have been greatly improved by the learned men of Europe and America in recent centuries, but these improvements have been made on foundations laid by the Greeks.

The Greek who did more than any other, perhaps, to encourage this habit of deep thinking was Plato, who wrote many books in which two men are represented as talking about serious things. They are therefore called dialogs. The principal speaker in these dialogs is Socrates, whom Plato greatly admired. He is pictured on the opposite page teaching a wealthy young Athenian. Socrates seems to have been a homely sort of man who believed it was his duty to stand in the market-place questioning the people he met about the things they believed. He forced them to think about things they were taking for granted merely because they had been told they were true. His questions were so searching that many of his listeners were made to feel quite foolish about their old-fashioned notions. Some hated him for it; some laughed at him for being such an idle busybody; some were deeply grateful for what they learned and greatly admired him. The time came when a certain group of powerful men wished to get rid of his influence at Athens. He was arrested and tried for introducing new gods and for making young people wicked with his teachings, although he seems to have been a pious and good man. Perhaps he might have escaped death if he had been willing to grant that he was in the wrong and take some mild punishment. But he was a man of great courage. More than once he stood out alone against powerful men who were doing unlawful things, and now instead of being penitent he claimed that he was a benefactor of the city and should be rewarded for the good he had done. This was too much for the patience of his judges, and he was condemned to drink a poison made from hemlock. He refused a chance to escape from Athens and calmly awaited the appointed day, talking with his friends about life after death and showing not the slightest fear of death. When the time came he quietly drank the cup of hemlock, and so left the world one of its bravest stories. Great successors of Plato, like Aristotle, took up his methods of deep thinking, and in remarkable books made them known to all later educated Europeans.

The Greek cities had always been too jealous of one another to

From a painting



SOCrates TEACHING THE YOUNG ALCIBIADES

combine into a larger and more powerful state. They were so weakened in fighting among themselves that when Philip of Macedon, a brilliant warrior of a kindred race to the north, set out upon his career of conquest, he had no difficulty in subduing the Greek cities. After the death of Philip his son Alexander continued his conquests until all southwestern Asia and even Egypt had fallen into his hands. Alexander thus brought about the first great European empire. But the influence of the Greek civilization spread over this empire with him, and Alexander helped this along by setting up here and there new Greek cities. The greatest of these was Alexandria on the Nile delta (see map, page 397). Here after the death of the conqueror and the break-up of his empire, Ptolemy, one of his generals, made himself ruler of the ancient land of Egypt. Under this intelligent man and his successors Alexandria became a great center of Greek learning. The Greek language became widely known. Greek books, Greek ideas and Greek ways of living spread widely among educated people. New things were added to the older Egyptian, Asiatic and earlier Greek civilizations.

It was an age of invention like our own. Men studied the use of pulleys, wedges, levers, screws, cogwheels, water-wheels; made water clocks, air guns and forcing pumps, siphon fountains, etc. They even employed their knowledge in the making of mechanical toys. In the splendid city of Alexandria, its harbor filled with shipping from all parts of the known world, with its gigantic lighthouse, its marble palaces, its magnificent gymnasiums, baths, stadium, concert halls and temples, the second Ptolemy established a kind of university, with a library of papyrus rolls containing all the knowledge of the time. Here learned men were gathered to study and write at the king's expense. The calendar was improved by making each year in four a leap-year with an additional day. The Greeks now rearranged the week of seven days, using the 24-hour day of the ancient Egyptians. Each of these days was given to either the sun, moon, or one of the planets, for these had long been thought of as gods. The sun had a day,

Sunday; the moon, Monday; Saturday is the day of Saturn. The other days of the week were also named for the planets, but these were afterwards changed. At Alexandria Euclid developed the study of geometry so carefully that his book was the textbook in the subject until almost our own time. An observatory was built—without telescopes to be sure—in which many new observations were made of the heavenly bodies. One astronomer calculated the correct size of the earth within a few hundred miles, and made an error in its diameter of no more than about fifty miles; another calculated the length of the year within six minutes and estimated the distance to the moon very closely. In another city an astronomer even proved that the earth and the planets revolve about the sun, but nobody believed him. Long before, brilliant Greeks had taught that the moon and the earth are spheres and that the earth turns on its axis from west to east in twenty-four hours. Another astronomer made a list of hundreds of fixed stars in the heavens, so that others could be added to the list when they should be found. There were also great geographers at Alexandria, for new knowledge of the more distant parts of the world had come from the campaigns of Alexander and from bold merchants whose ships were ranging from India to Britain. There are even tales of a voyage to Guinea on the west coast of Africa, and a still more astonishing one of the circuit of Africa. If such voyages were really ever made, however, it may well be doubted whether Prince Henry the Navigator ever heard of them so many centuries later. One astronomer fitted out a ship in which he reached the frozen seas of the north and learned of Thule (Iceland). Maps of the world were made, upon which were shown lines of latitude and longitude. A learned Greek declared that one ocean connected Europe and Asia.

The most remarkable man of these times was Archimedes of Syracuse, a large and powerful Greek city in Sicily. Archimedes visited Alexandria, and while in Egypt devised a screw within a cylinder that raised water from lower to higher levels. He also invented stone catapults and other engines of war, with which



Painting by Courtois

his home city was able to keep off the besieging Romans for three years. He studied the use of levers, and is reported to have said, "Give me a place on which to stand and I will move the earth." His friend, the king of Syracuse, wished to know whether the royal crown was solid gold. One day while stepping into the bath which was running over, it occurred to Archimedes that if he placed the crown in a bowl of water exactly full, and then separately placed in the same bowl a piece of gold of equal weight, any difference in the amount of water spilled over by the two objects would show a difference in the metals. This was a great discovery in the science of physics. It is said that Archimedes was so overjoyed at his discovery, that without waiting for his clothing, he rushed through the streets shouting, "Eureka! Eureka! I have found it! I have found it!" The Roman general had given orders that in the sack of Syracuse the life of the famous scholar should be spared, but the story has come down to us that he was killed by the soldiers while studying a mathematical figure in the sand.

The last great scientist of the ancient world lived at Alexandria. This was Claudius Ptolemy, who lived in Roman times several hundred years after Archimedes. Ptolemy summed up the knowledge of the ancient world so thoroughly that his books were held in the highest respect by the learned men who knew of them down to the time of Columbus. It was the books of Ptolemy that fixed the false idea among later scholars that the spherical earth stands still in the midst of the heavens and that the sun and the heavenly bodies revolve about it—an idea that was not given up until some fifty years after the discovery of America. Ptolemy's geography was likewise regarded as the best book on this subject until the time of Prince Henry the Navigator. His map of the world is shown on page 390. In his geography Ptolemy gave the location of 8000 places by latitude and longitude, naturally with a good many errors. He also wrote on the behavior of light and sound, and on astrology, which was then regarded as a science.

CLAUDIUS PTOLEMY'S WORLD, CIR. A. D. 150.

Ptolemy was the first to use carefully lines of latitude and longitude. He allowed 360 degrees for the circle of the earth. Where did he place his zero line of longitude? What fraction of the earth's surface is shown here east and west? What fraction north and south? Is the equator in the right position? Notice the shape of Africa and its connection with Asia. How do you suppose Ptolemy made such grave errors? What about the parts of the earth's surface not shown on this map? What other interesting things do you notice? The names are in Latin.



EUROPEAN CIVILIZATION UNDER THE ROMANS

The Latins were a vigorous, warlike but uncivilized people whose home city was Rome in Italy, at first a rude village of huts on the Tiber River. Having gradually made themselves masters of all Italy, including the Greek cities to the south, they built ships and in time conquered all the fragments of Alexander's empire. The Roman empire that resulted is the last great empire of the ancient world. It will be seen from the map on page 397 that it included all the lands about the Mediterranean Sea, with their millions of very different kinds of people. The city of Rome grew in size and splendor and came to be the center of the Mediterranean world.

Beginning at Gibraltar you will observe from the map that the Roman Empire took in all North Africa, including the ancient civilization of Egypt. Over in Asia it included the people along the eastern coast of the Mediterranean, such as the Hebrews, the Phoenicians, the Syrians, and all Asia Minor. Greece and Macedonia had become Roman, as well as the larger islands of the Mediterranean. But the most interesting fact to us is that even the barbarians of Europe to the south of the Danube River and to the west of the Rhine, including Spain and part of England, were also subdued by the Roman armies.

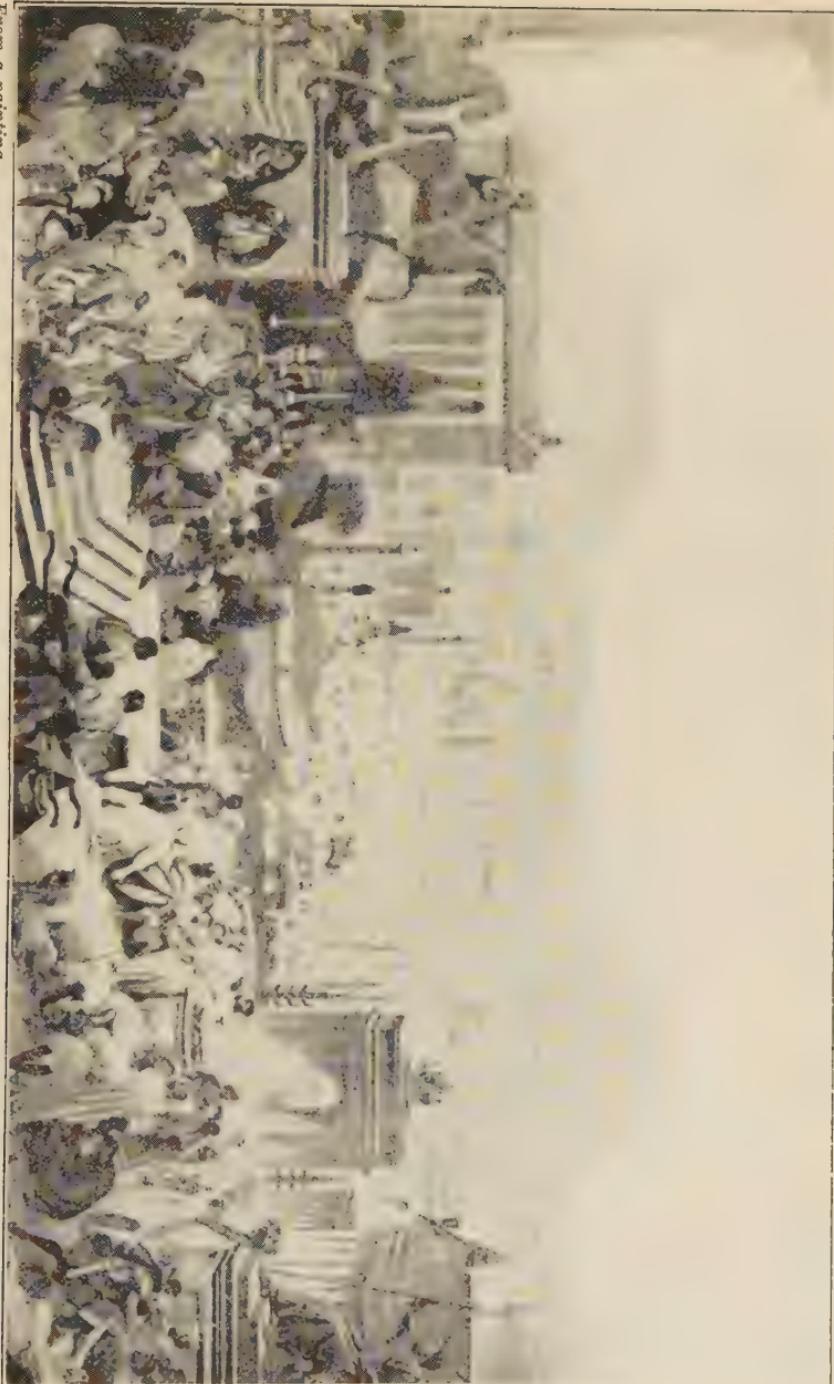
During the centuries in which the Greek civilization had been growing and the Roman conquests were being made, many civilized things had gradually come to the knowledge of the European barbarians. The regions now known as France, a large part of Switzerland, the provinces along the Rhine River, Belgium and Southern Holland were known to the Romans as Gaul. It was still a land of dreary swamps and vast forests, for the most part. But the more advanced people had both bronze and iron, and had learned to make tools and weapons of these metals, and tasteful objects modeled after the much finer things of Greece and Italy. They had cloth garments of many colors. The chiefs wore rings and bracelets and collars of gold. They rode forth to battle with helmets wrought in the shape of some fierce beast's head

topped with nodding plumes, in chain armor, long bucklers and clinking swords. On the hilltops were walled villages and the plains were dotted with hamlets, whose houses were built of timber and wattle work. Roads for wheeled traffic ran from town to town. Bridges spanned the rivers, and barges and ships floated upon them, carrying on a vigorous trade. Each tribe had its coins. The priests and some of the more wealthy families could write. A little Latin and Greek were known. A few men were visiting the Roman cities on the southern coast to learn more of these cultivated things.

It was Julius Caesar who added Gaul to the Empire, about fifty years before the year 1. He was a brilliant warrior. In several remarkable campaigns he led the Roman armies over Gaul, subduing the tribes and setting the new province in order. He even invaded far Britain. In the course of time the new province became almost as Roman as Rome itself. Massive Roman roads, bridges and aqueducts were built, so strong and durable that remains of them may still be seen. Over these roads Roman governors and armies passed to keep order, to establish Roman laws, and to collect the taxes. Over these roads, too, trade followed and built up cities, where Roman officials and wealthy families endeavored to copy the life at Rome—the life of its villas, baths, theatres and temples. Slowly the land was cleared and made into great Roman estates. Slowly the leaders among the conquered people took up the Roman ways, their money and laws, their manners and family names. Even the old languages absorbed much of the Latin speech of the Romans. In time it was difficult to tell Romans from the natives of the province. At the boundaries of the Empire, where these were not marked by the great rivers, Roman walls were set up to keep out the wilder tribes to the east and north.

The Romans felt the charm of the conquered Greek cities early in their history. As a result Roman civilization was in many respects Greek. In building their temples, theatres and fine residences, the Roman copied much of the Greek architecture. But

From a painting



THE FORUM OR CIVIC CENTER OF ROME

the Romans had a taste for massive buildings of great size. They made much use of the round arch, and invented the dome we see in many of our modern buildings. The amphitheatre is Roman. In making their great structures—their harbors, quays, aqueducts and war-machines—they employed a great variety of materials including cement, and made important advances in engineering.

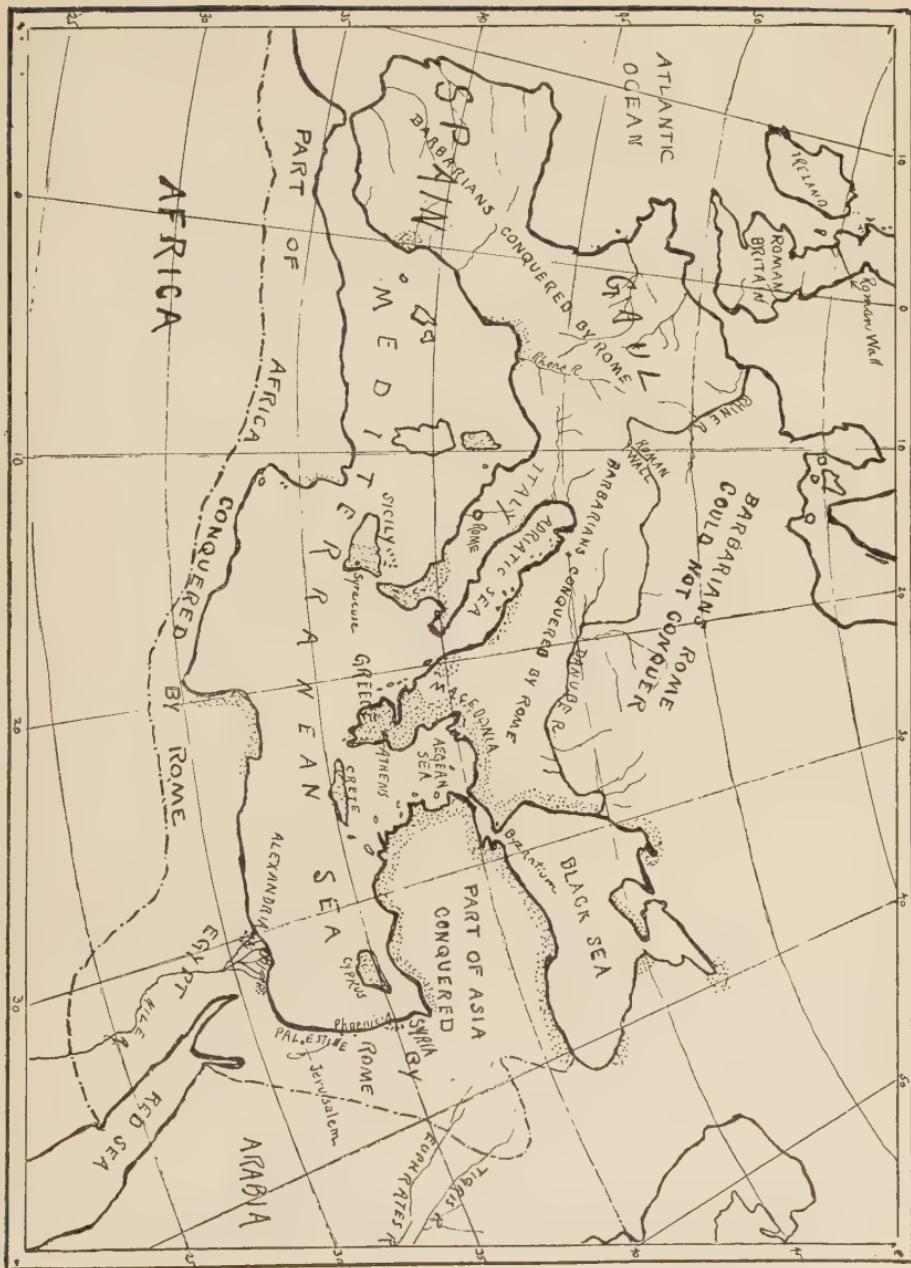
The Greek alphabet was taken over by the Romans. Greek ships, coins, methods of measuring and ways of business were copied. Many of the Greek gods were accepted and given Latin names. When the Roman armies conquered the Greek mainland, many of the admired objects of art were brought back to Rome in the form of plunder. One conqueror returned with 250 wagon-loads of Greek statues and paintings; another brought with him 500 bronze and marble statues. Many educated men were carried from Greece to Rome as captives. Some of these were freed and set up schools which young Romans attended. Others remained slaves and acted as teachers in wealthy Roman families. Higher education included a training in the Greek language and writings, and a visit to the schools at Athens. As Rome grew older and wealthier, ambitious men began to devote more time and attention to education and writing. Such a group is shown in the illustration on the opposite page. Seated on the right is Maecenas, a wealthy and powerful friend of the emperor, who is entertaining in his elegant home at Rome three of his intimate friends. He is fond of fine writing and admires gifted men. Standing to the left is Virgil, son of a farmer who has given the young man the best education available. After years of earnest and painstaking effort, Virgil is to write, among other things, the *Aeneid*, a long poem describing the founding of Rome. He helped make the Latin language strong and beautiful. Next to him is Horace, son of a man who was once a slave, whom the wealthy Maecenas has helped and encouraged. He also wrote fine poetry, which, like that of his friend Virgil, is still read with pleasure. Behind him is Varius, another gifted writer.



But the Romans were not merely imitators. In one respect, especially, they were greatly superior to the Greeks. This had to do with law and government. For the Greeks never learned the secret of managing many cities and countries under fair and reasonable rules. Their mutual jealousies stood in the way. As the Roman Empire grew to include so many different lands and kinds of people, the leading Romans, with hard common sense, always considered how the new parts might be added to the Empire so as to maintain peace and harmony throughout the whole. Unlike the brief and selfish empires before it, the Roman Empire, in its best days at least, was not governed by the whims and dictates of one master, or by the selfish interests of one city, but in terms of a law and order that was slowly worked out to fit each case. The Roman law was a great policeman ordering the whole empire according to rules of reason. In this way, for the first time in history, a great body of law grew up which the Western World never forgot.

In several other matters the Romans excelled. Because they had always been farmers they studied the cultivation of the soil, of fruits and fine animals. Because they had conquered many strange lands, their generals and learned men gave some attention to the geography of these countries and the customs of their peoples. As for the great body of Greek knowledge about the world of nature which had been gathered for its own sake, the Romans were not much interested. They were a very practical people and had a mild contempt for those who merely studied the world just to understand it. As a result much of the Greek science was never translated into the Latin and little was added to it. The Greeks remained the masters of pure science down to the beginning of Modern Times.

Let us now sum up briefly what the Romans did for civilization. They took over much of the Greek culture, preserved it and added to it. They protected civilization from the barbarians of the North and West and civilized those west of the Rhine River. They left an object-lesson of a great well-governed empire in-



The dotted parts show where the Greek cities were located. These became a part of the Roman Empire.

cluding all sorts and conditions of men. Because the Roman Empire was large and well-governed it made possible the wide spread of the Christian religion, and the Christian Church helped preserve civilization after the fall of Rome. Let us see how the Christian religion spread over the Roman Empire.

When Jesus lived in Palestine that country was a Roman province and was ruled by a Roman governor, Pontius Pilate. After his death Paul and Peter and other missionaries carried the Christian teachings far and wide throughout the Empire. For a long time the Christians were a small and despised sect. But the remarkable story of the life of Jesus, his teachings, and those of Paul and the other missionaries made a strong appeal to the people of the Empire, who were losing faith in their old myths and religions. The slaves and humble people were especially interested in a religion which gave them a value they did not have according to the ideas of the time. The number of Christians steadily grew. For the most part the Roman leaders cared little what men believed so long as they were quiet and obeyed the laws, and all sorts of strange faiths had multiplied at Rome. But the Christians were different from all the others in certain respects. They cared little for the wars and government of Rome; they abhorred the cruel gladiatorial combats and the wickedness about them. Ignorant people accused them of doing evil things and of setting fire to the city. At times they were cruelly persecuted. But the persecutions only added to their numbers. As time went on so many people became Christian that the emperors thought it wise to become Christian themselves and to make Christianity the religion of the Empire. Christianity was thus added to the civilization of the Roman people.

About four centuries after the birth of Christ the Roman Empire gradually fell to pieces. There were many reasons for this. The first Romans were farmer-soldiers, proud of their land and their conquests, and interested in government. For a long time Rome and its provinces were ruled by a senate of very able men, and the government was a kind of republic. But the con-



Painting by Staellert

A CHRISTIAN PRIEST INTERRUPTING A FIGHT BETWEEN GLADIATORS

quests gave men wealth that they did not honestly earn, and brought in thousands of slaves to take over the labor of the hard-working farmers and citizens, and to accustom them to leisure and idleness. In time there were about as many slaves in Italy as free men. The government fell into the hands of politicians and mobs. The small farmers lost their lands to wealthy land-holders, who cultivated their great estates with slaves, forcing the farmers to work for them as tenants or to join the hordes of idlers in the cities, where their votes were bought by the politicians with free food and the debasing excitement of the chariot races and the fighting of gladiators and wild beasts. The great families either died out or lost interest in government, in fighting for the Empire, and in raising strong sons and daughters to succeed them. The senate of strong leaders, which had built up the republic with such good sense, lost its influence and the power to choose the emperor. The armies that had first been composed of citizen-soldiers were now made up of hired fighters from all parts of the Empire, who cared less for the Empire than for pay and plunder. When no more conquests were made slaves grew scarce, making food and living more costly. Business declined. Often there was no money for the hired soldiers, who then became rebellious and insolent. Finding themselves with the power in their hands, they made emperors of their generals and of men who bribed them for their backing. Life and property became unsafe. Robbery, murder and rioting prevailed. Progress under the Empire came to an end. The task that remained to the Romans was that of passing the old civilization on to the barbarians.

All about the boundaries of the Empire were its enemies, ready to strike when the strong arm of Rome should weaken. Everywhere within it were ambitious men ready to head uprisings of the people. As the government became weak and corrupt these had their opportunity. First the outlying provinces broke away, the Roman armies being too weak to hold them. From over the Rhine and the Danube the barbarians came in hordes, first to



CHARIOT RACES IN THE ROMAN AMPHITHEATRE

plunder, and then to remain as conquerors and lords of the land. The Huns, a wild Tartar race from Asia, hurled themselves upon the provinces, sacked the cities, and left destruction behind them. Even the city of Rome was not spared. At last the Empire fell into fragments, each ruled by some strong man: a chieftain with his band of barbarians perhaps, or a Roman who could collect an army about him, or some prominent man in the Eastern countries. The people, great and small, who had once looked to the laws and armies of Rome for protection, were now compelled to attach themselves to some powerful man for security of their lands and persons. Thus it was that the great Roman Empire gradually came to an end and the period of the Middle Ages drew on.

THE BARBARIAN MASTERS OF EUROPE

The new masters of Europe came over the Rhine and the Danube from those lands we now call Holland, Germany, Czechoslovakia, Poland and Southern Russia. Many great battles had been fought with these people by the Roman armies, but they could not be conquered and added to the Empire. On page 405 an artist imagines the victorious return of a barbarian chieftain and his warriors, bringing back with them Roman captives and plunder. These people were related to the Gauls whom the Romans had subdued, but they had somewhat different speech and customs. They were large and tall and had fierce blue eyes and reddish hair. The occupations of the men were warfare, plundering and hunting. Their free time was given to loafing, drinking and gambling. The care of the homes, fields and cattle was left to the women, old men and the few slaves. They had horses and iron, but no cities or coins and little trade. From the Roman merchants and captives and some few missionaries they had heard of the civilized ways of the great Empire, and had obtained some of its gold ornaments and other luxuries. Many of the tribes had taken up a form of Christianity. They had no art and no books. Those who had not accepted Christianity still worshiped their gods and the great forces of nature, the sun,

Painting by Rochebrune

PILLAGE OF A ROMAN VILLA BY THE HUNS



the moon and fire. From their regard for sacred trees has come down to us our use of maypoles and Christmas trees. The names of certain days of the week they changed in honor of their gods: Wednesday is Woden's day; Thursday is Thor's day; the day of the goddess Frija is Friday. Women were held in respect; the family life was wholesome. There were nobles, commoners and a few slaves, but the commoners were fond of their independence, and they did not have kings until after they moved into the Empire.

The map on page 407 shows where the principal groups of barbarians came from and where they finally settled—in some cases after considerable wandering about. We should be interested in these people, for they are the ancestors of many of the present people of Europe and of most of us in this country. They mingled and married with the Romans and the earlier people the Romans had conquered. But they were much more numerous in the northern parts of Europe than they were in the southern. This explains why their larger bodies, blue eyes and fair complexion are so frequent in the northern nations, while in the south the people are smaller and darker because these were the traits of the earlier and more numerous people in that region. It is for the same reason that the languages of the northern and southern parts of Europe are quite different. The conquerors in the south adopted the Latin language. This is why the languages of Spain, Portugal, France and Italy are so much alike and why they are all called Romanic. In the north the barbarians retained their old Germanic or Teutonic speech. Although they differ from one another more or less, the languages of Germany, Holland, Denmark, Norway and Sweden have much in common, and they are all called Germanic or Teutonic because of this resemblance. The case of the English is somewhat peculiar. It was at first the speech of the Angles and Saxons and other barbarians from the country now called Denmark who took England (Angle-Land) as their share of the conquest. But England was afterwards conquered by the Normans from France, who spoke

Painting by Thumann



RETURN OF THE VICTORIOUS BARBARIANS

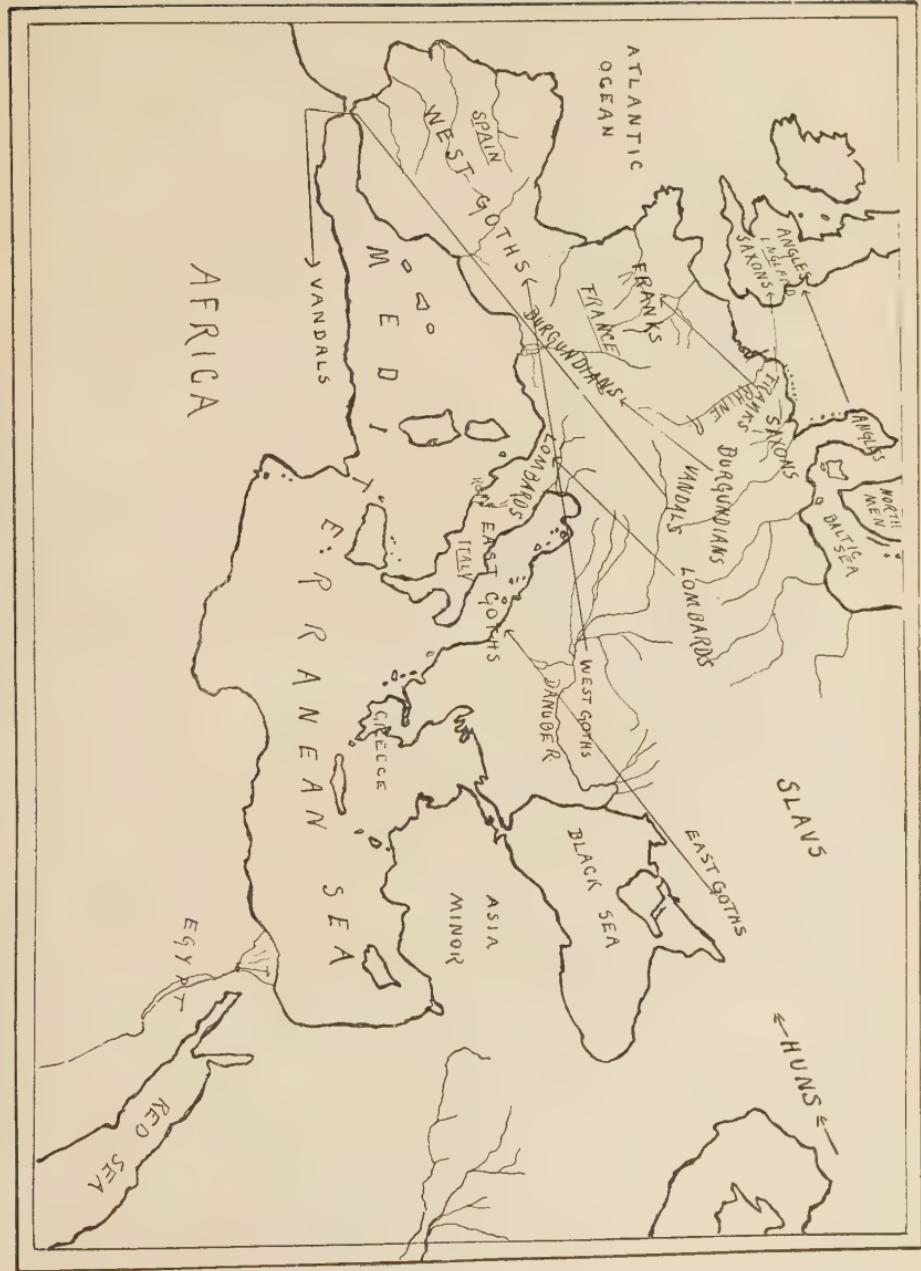
the Romanic language of that country. For a time French was the language of the conquering nobility, but the old Anglo-Saxon held on among the common people and became a permanent part of the speech of the whole nation. As a consequence English is partly Anglo-Saxon and partly Romanic.

The new masters of Europe were strong in mind and body, full of energy and intelligence, unspoiled by the luxury and vices of city life; but they were coarse and cruel. They brought with them the habits of living they had inherited from their hunting ancestors—habits of religion and law, of marriage and the family, of eating, dressing and enjoying themselves. These habits they continued to use in their new homes because they had no others. They were ignorant of the knowledge and experience of the Romans. In all such matters they were like children. Is it surprising, then, that they should have needed ten long centuries to catch up with all this education they had missed? Probably they were impressed by the more orderly and pleasanter ways of living they found on the Roman farms and in the Roman cities. Probably they accepted and used many of the simpler and more attractive of these when they finally settled down for good. But they were not used to city life in their forest homes and they were very poor farmers.

Most of the things they saw about them were quite beyond their skill and understanding; many beyond their power to admire and enjoy. How could they be expected to take satisfaction in massive aqueducts, beautiful buildings and works of art, complicated systems of law and justice, and all the other products of thousands of years of civilization? What they chiefly wanted was land and grain and gold, and freedom to live the kind of life they knew about. New kinds of weapons, of food and drink and pleasures, and things that gratified their vanity, they, like all primitive people, would be sure to welcome. Aside from such simple advantages the Roman ways of living were of little interest to them.

Especially were they unaccustomed to living together in great states or nations, for in their old homes each tribe was practically

AFRICA

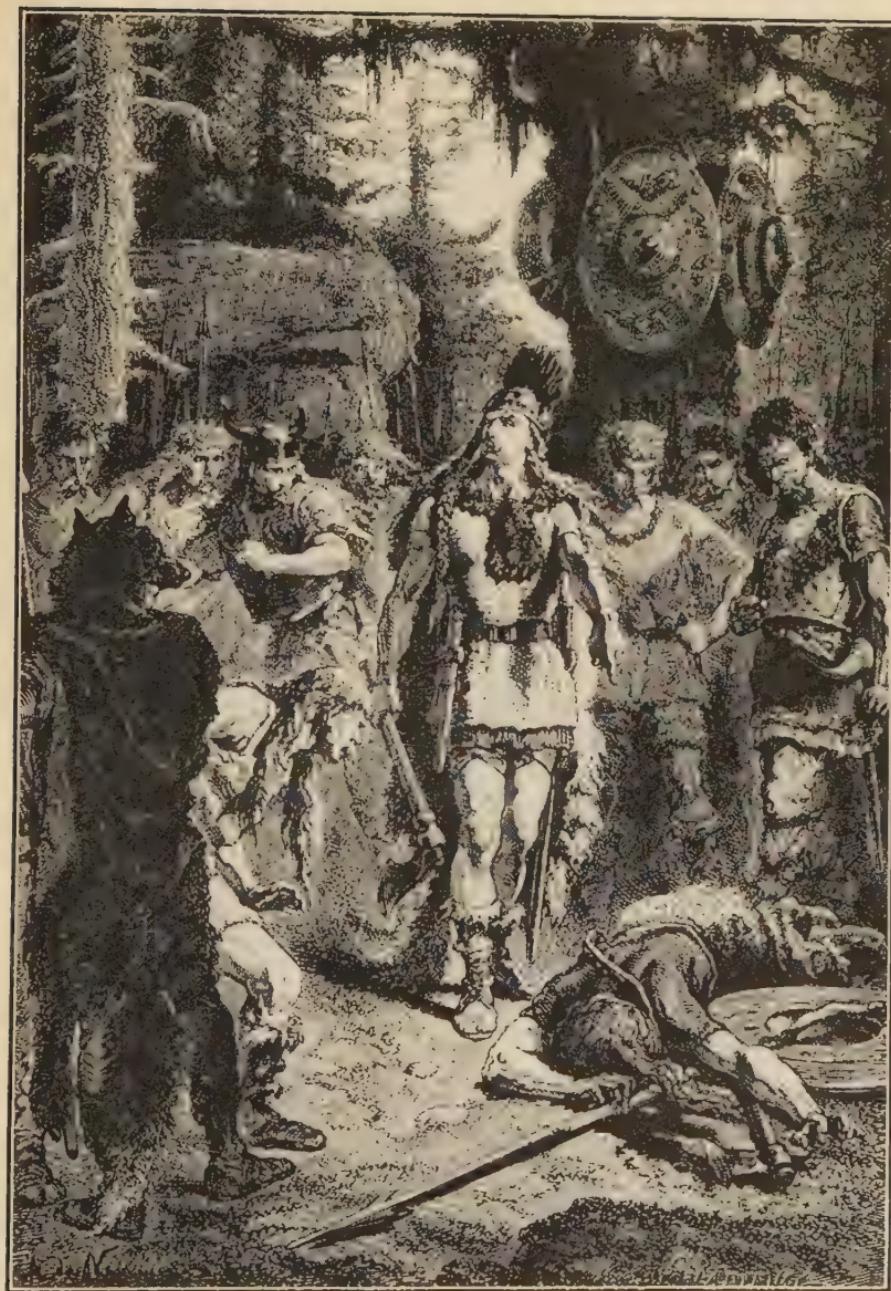


THE BARBARIAN CONQUEST OF EUROPE

The daggers show in a general way the movement of the tribes from their homelands beyond the Rhine and the Danube to the north where they finally settled.

independent. They knew nothing of kings and emperors over great territories, subject to a common law made for them by senates of great ruling families. Each little tribe lived its own life. The group of warriors collected together made the rules that governed their simple affairs. Forever at war among themselves, you can guess what happened when the tribes spread out over the Roman provinces as conquerors. There was a great scramble for lands, and for power over the conquered people. While they were actually engaged in their conquests, tribes related by blood might combine for the time under some great fighter, only to fall into quarrels over the division of the spoil. The leader of such a group of tribes might even undertake to build up a clumsy kingdom or empire after the Roman pattern, either to have it fall to pieces at his death, or at best to last but a few generations. On the page opposite such a leader is shown punishing a rebel. In the long run these groups of tribes related by blood were to form the basis for the modern European nations that we now know, but such permanent and well-ordered great groups of people were far in the future.

Meanwhile the temporary kingdoms came to be mere shadows, where the king had hardly more power than his greater lords. Each great warrior strove to hold and obtain what land and people he could, and took under his protection lords weaker than himself, with their lands and peoples. These lords, in turn, might take under their protection still weaker lords and knights, with their lands and people. It was all one great system of fighting and bargaining for help and protection. If a man's band of fighting men was strong enough, he fought for what he wanted. If too weak to fight, he made the best bargain he could. To some strong man above him he promised to be a faithful vassal, and to aid him with money and warriors. In return he had from this strong man the secure possession of his lands and protection from outsiders. To any weaker man below him he gave a fief of land and people, or some other valuable advantage, to be held for life and passed on to his children—exacting always faithful service



By De Neuville

CLOVIS, KING OF THE FRANKS, PUNISHING A REBEL

of military and money aids, or produce from the soil. There were lords of all sizes, from big to little, in all sorts of intricate relations. It was a very curious way of life, but a very natural one after all when one remembers that there were no strong nations to make laws for and to keep order over whole countries.

This period in Europe is called the Feudal Age. It became a well settled kind of life along about the middle of the ten centuries, and remained in effect until our modern nations grew to take its place. It was the age of lords and knights and ladies; of jousting, tournaments and chivalry; of the castles that still adorn the hilltops of Europe, with their halls and turrets and dungeon cells. You have read about the wandering minstrels and the other features of this interesting period, and we need only recall it all to you. War being the serious business of the upper classes, it was the thing they made the most of in all their thoughts and games and entertainments. In fact, they made a religion of it—the religion of chivalry. To be a true knight or lady was in those times the ideal the members of the upper classes held before their minds. It was a noble ideal in many ways, not always lived up to perhaps; associated, too, with cruelty and coarseness, for the times were still rough and turbulent. Down below all this life of war and chivalry were the great masses of the people, miserable serfs attached to the soil, living in their rude huts in the villages about the lord's castle or great house, supplying it by their toil with food and fuel and service, and what measure of comfort there was in those times before our modern conveniences.

HOW THE BARBARIANS BECAME CIVILIZED

We should think of the ten centuries of the Middle Ages, shown on the time line on page 360, as the period in Europe in which its new masters were slowly learning the lessons of civilization. They learned these lessons chiefly from the Christian Church, from the Arabian followers of Mohammed, in their trading with the East, and in holy wars or crusades carried on by the Chris-

tians of Europe against the Mohammedans. Let us notice briefly how this happened.

The Catholic Church had steadily grown stronger under the Roman Empire after Christianity had become the state religion. As the times grew more cruel and disorderly and the rule of the emperors broke down, men everywhere suffered from misery and injustice. The officers of the state could no longer protect them. It was quite natural, therefore, that they should turn to the one group of leaders that could offer them some protection and care. These were the priests and officers of the Church, who gradually came to have great influence and authority. Each village had its place of worship and its priest; each city had its higher officer or bishop; the greater cities had a still higher officer called the archbishop, and at the head of all was the Pope at Rome, whose commands were not only obeyed by the lower clergy and the people, but were listened to with respect and reverence by the barbarian kings and princes. In the place of the overshadowing Empire was now the overshadowing Church, which undertook to bring order out of the chaos in Europe, to regulate and direct the lives of the people in keeping with its idea of what the Founder of Christianity desired. It was a great undertaking and not always successful, for the people were still profoundly ignorant, coarse and cruel, and were as yet hardly in a position to appreciate and understand the lofty teachings of Jesus. But in the long run the influence of the Church counted and helped to soften the lives of the rude barbarians. Among the priests were most of the educated men in Europe. At the monasteries which were built all over Europe, better methods of farming and living were taught; at these places the monks carefully preserved a few of the old Roman books, and copied them on beautiful manuscripts of parchment. Unfortunately the Greek language and the best of the Greek learning was almost forgotten. In the monasteries the monks wrote simple histories which tell of the events of their time. Having made vows to lead a pious life, they set before the people an example of friendliness, charity and decency.

Missionaries as zealous as the early apostles traveled and worked among the barbarians, converting their kings and people, until all Europe was Christian. On the opposite page an artist pictures the baptism of one of these kings, whose name was Wittikind, leader of the fierce Saxons, who long retained their gods and Saxon independence. They were at last subdued by the Christian king of the Franks, Charles the Great, or Charlemagne, who stands on the right. Charlemagne built up a great European empire, modeled after the Roman and approved by the Pope. It was therefore called the Holy Roman Empire. This Empire fell to pieces at Charlemagne's death, although the name survived for other ambitious European kings to strive for.

It seems strange that the followers of another religion should also have helped in the education of Europeans, but such was the case. Mohammed was a gifted camel-driver of Mecca in Arabia. He proclaimed to his idol-worshipping countrymen the existence of one merciful God, Allah, whose prophet he was. Perhaps he had heard of such ideas from the Jews in the lands about him. Mohammed taught that it was the duty of men to submit to the will of Allah, to pray several times a day, to be friendly with one's fellowmen, and to be charitable to the poor. He greatly emphasized cleanliness of the body. After his death the writings he had made, under the guidance of what he regarded as a divine voice, were collected to make the Koran, the Bible of Mohammedans, or Moslems as they are often called.

The leaders who followed Mohammed were called caliphs. Under their leadership the tribes of the desert combined to make armies, which set about conquering the nearby lands and converting them to the Moslem faith, sometimes with great cruelty. They were remarkably successful. They took Egypt, Syria and Palestine, as well as Persia and the region about the Euphrates and Tigris rivers. Bagdad, near the site of old Babylon, they made into a rich and splendid city, where the "Arabian Nights" was written. The Mediterranean became a Moslem sea, and the trade of Europe with the Old East was cut off. Westward, they

Painting by Thumann



THE BAPTISM OF WITTIKIND

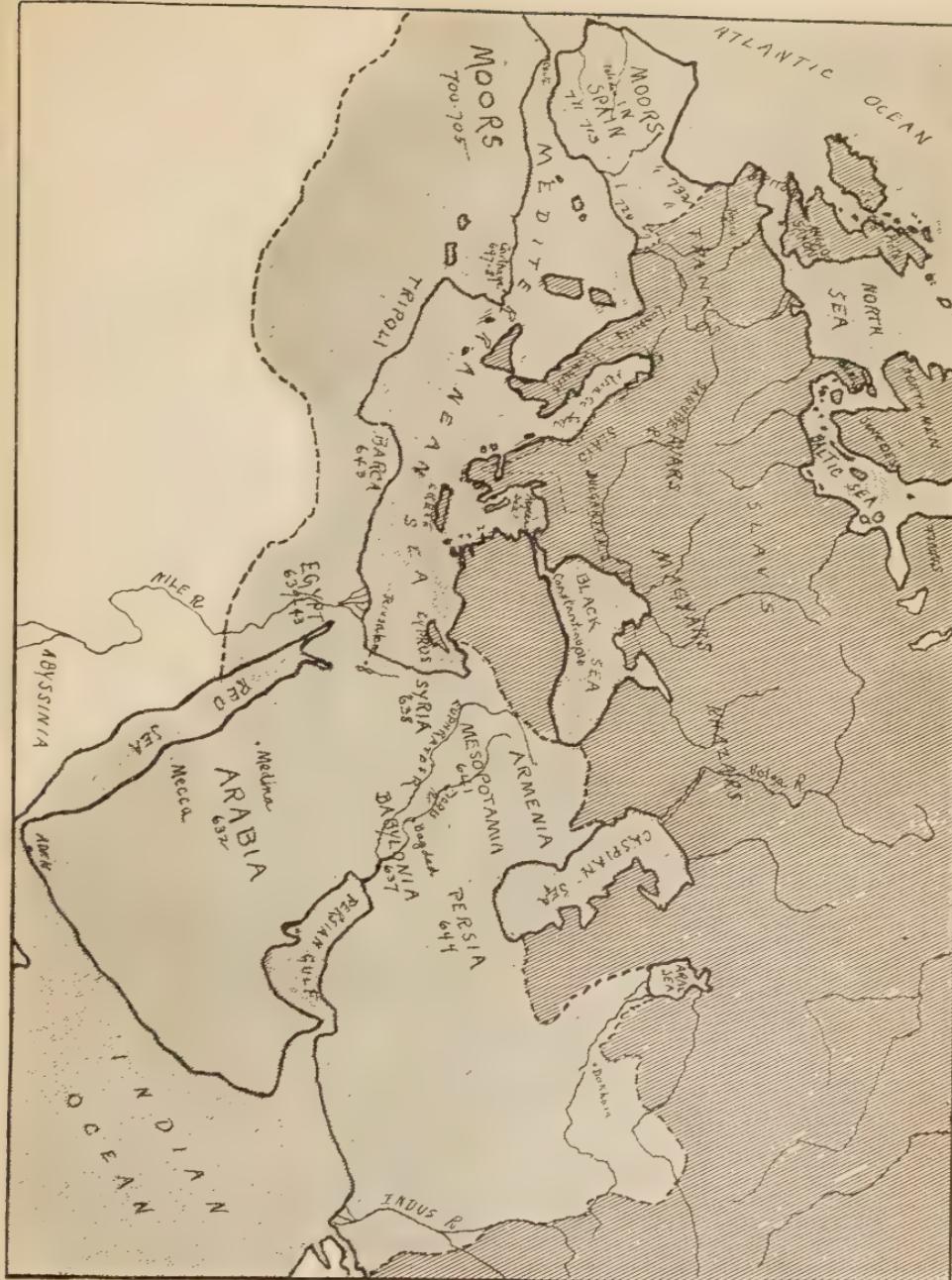
pushed along the north coast of Africa, entered Spain, and drove the Christians into the mountains or beyond the Pyrenees into France. They were only stopped in their conquest of Europe by the armies of one of the barbarian kings of France. In Spain for hundreds of years they flourished and built up a remarkable Moorish civilization.

This civilization came from the people whom the Arabs had conquered, for the Arabs themselves were ignorant desert tribesmen to begin with. But they had conquered a large part of the old world with its civilized cities, and had benefited from the Greek learning and especially from the learned Jews of these cities. Therefore while Europe was in its dark age of ignorance and warfare, the Arabs and their Jewish friends were the merchants of the Mediterranean world and even of the Indies, and the most cultivated people of the time. There was far more knowledge in Moorish Spain than anywhere in Christian Europe. Only in the far eastern part about Constantinople did a fragment of the old Roman Empire still survive, where Greek civilization was kept alive.

The Moorish cities of Spain were famed for their mosques, baths, residences and street lighting; for their silk looms, the manufacturing of copper and iron utensils and beautiful woolen carpets; for the intelligence, good manners and luxurious tastes of their people. Some were centers of ship-building and the manufacture of goods of cotton, a plant brought to Europe by the Arabs along with sugar-cane. Here and there were places noted for their figs and raisins, drugs and colored earthenware, draperies and olive oils. There were well-built roads and bridges in Spain, schools and libraries. The Moorish architecture, with its dome and minarets, produced beautiful buildings, of which the Alhambra at Granada remains a remarkable example. All such things were still very rare in Christian Europe, if they existed at all.

Backward Europe learned many things from the Arabs, either from trading with their merchants or from European visitors to

THE LIGHT SHADING SHOWS THE MOHAMMEDAN CONQUESTS. THE DATES INDICATE THE TIME OF CONQUEST.



Spain. In Europe the use of the Egyptian papyrus had been lost, and parchment made from the skins of animals had taken its place. From the Arabs was learned the use of rags for the making of paper, a practice they had from the Chinese. The Arabs also brought to Europe the use of gunpowder (another Chinese invention) and the compass and mechanical clocks. Christians took delight in their poetry, romances and music, and studied their graceful style of writing. The Spanish took over the Arabian guitar. Our language today shows this influence of the Arabs, for from the Arabic language has come such English words as muslin, mattress, cupola, alcove, alcohol, algebra.

Europeans learned of many of the old Greek books through their translation into Arabic by learned men in the Moslem countries—such books as those of Euclid and Ptolemy of Alexandria. They were great students of these books, and especially of medicine and surgery. But their learning was much mixed up with superstition. They were especially interested in astrology, the false science of the influence of the heavenly bodies on the fortunes of men; and in alchemy, a study that had to do with changing of metals, one into another—especially the changing of base metals into gold—and with finding a cure for all diseases. But there was some true knowledge even in these books which later helped the growth of real science. The Arabs emphasized algebra and arithmetic, some of which they had learned from the Hindus of India; it was from these people they had taken the idea of zero and of decimals, and the signs of the numbers that we use today. It is not strange, then, that the few men in Europe who were coming to realize their ignorance should be keenly interested in Arabian books, and should even wish to visit Moslem Spain.

In addition to the influence of the Catholic Church and that of the Mohammedans, trade with the Old East and certain holy wars had much to do with the education of backward Europe. Throughout the Middle Ages the merchants of Venice in Italy had always had some dealings with the old Greek city of Constantinople and other Eastern parts. The holy wars are called

Crusades; they were great expeditions encouraged by the Pope for the rescue of the sacred places in Palestine from the hands of the Moslems. The Arabs had not been especially hard on the Christian pilgrims from Europe while they were the masters of the Holy Land, for this land was sacred to them as well as to the Jews and Christians. But when the Turks, a wild and barbarous



Victor Animatograph Co.

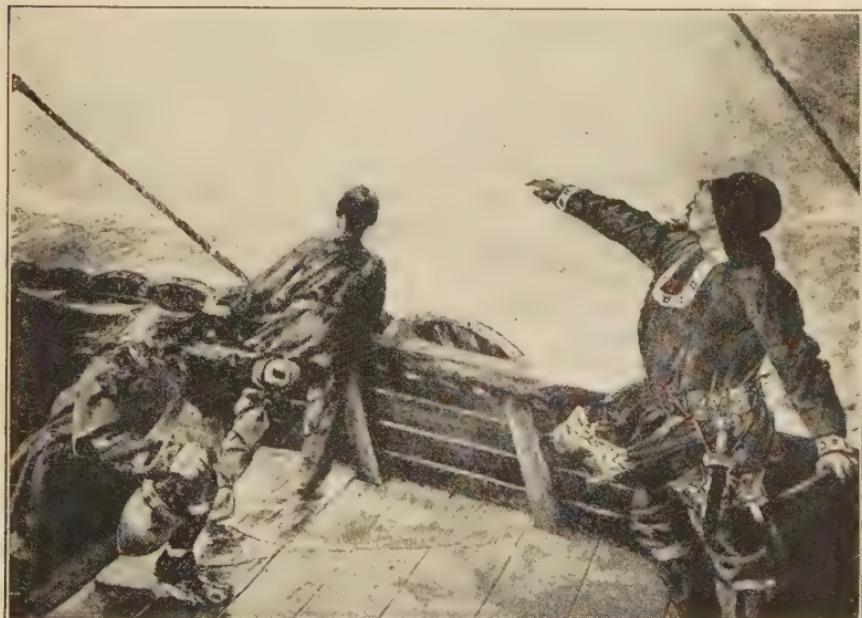
ASTONISHMENT OF THE CRUSADES AT THE WEALTH OF THE EAST

people from Asia, conquered Asia Minor from the Christian Emperor at Constantinople, threatened that city itself, and made themselves masters of the Moslems in the East, the pilgrims were not so well used. A great wave of indignation spread over Europe. Vast armies from all the Christian countries took the long journey to the East, and for a time made a Christian kingdom of

Jerusalem. Although the Holy Land was at last left in the hands of the Turks, the Crusaders who survived the dangers of the journey learned much from the older and richer civilization of the Eastern countries through which they passed. Those who returned to Europe brought with them a larger knowledge of the world and its people; they brought with them also the spices, perfumes, silks, gold and silver ornaments, precious stones, and other such luxuries the people of Constantinople and Asia had long been accustomed to. Europeans did not have such pleasant things in abundance and learned to like them. They especially prized the spices of the East because their foods were few and coarse and the spices gave them flavor and variety. In time a great exchange of goods grew up between Europe and Asia.

In the ten centuries of the Middle Ages the barbarous people of Europe were thus learning the lessons of civilization. Let us now notice some of the things that had been accomplished in this long period. In these centuries the Europeans had added very little to the knowledge of the Greeks about the geography of the world. A few travelers and missionaries had brought back tales of the mysterious Far East, to be sure. But the Vikings of Norway, at the time of their sea-wandering and plundering of Europe, had made a quite new discovery. They had found Iceland and Greenland, and had even visited America. But they had made little profit from these discoveries, and the knowledge of them had slowly faded out, although Columbus may have had some rumors of them in his time. Really, knowledge and art and pleasanter ways of living in Europe first grew up in the cities and towns, because the merchants of these were the first to become wealthy from the growing trade with the East and the different parts of Europe. With their new wealth the merchants bought rights and freedom from the kings and lords. They walled their towns and had armies to defend them. Serfs ran away from the lands of the lords to join the swelling population of the cities. The artisans of the different crafts formed brotherhoods to protect their members and to improve their conditions. There were

hundreds of these crafts: harnessmakers, cutlers, locksmiths, copper-smiths, tanners and furriers, manufacturers of cotton and woolen goods, of silks and many fabrics and of rope and thread. There were tailors, hatters and shoemakers, and makers of all sorts of clothing. There were dealers in articles of food and drink and spices; carpenters, masons, potters, glass-makers, jewelers. The town governed itself under a charter from the overlord or



Painting by Krohg

LIEF ERICKSEN, THE VIKING, SIGHTS THE AMERICAN COAST

king. It made its own laws, had its own courts and customs, its celebrations and festival days.

Usually the towns grew up about the hills upon which stood the lord's castle. The streets were narrow and crooked, dark at night and full of rubbish. But small beginnings were made in street cleaning, lighting and plumbing. The old miserable huts of the peasants gave way to larger and stronger houses, while those of the well-to-do were filled with substantial furniture.

Glass windows came into use, chimneys with flues, and mechanical clocks. Large and beautiful halls for the use of town officers and the brotherhoods were built. But most remarkable of all the buildings in the Middle Ages were the cathedrals. These were immense Christian churches of stone upon which the townspeople delighted to spend their time and money. Nothing quite like them has ever since been constructed in Europe. Each year tourists from America by the hundred visit these cathedrals and marvel at their wonders. At the time of their building there was no division in the Christian Church and there was no need, as there is today, of spending money for the building of a large number of different kinds of churches. The cathedrals took the place of our skyscrapers, government buildings, bridges, canals and railroads, for religion and pride in their cities were the chief things in the lives of the people. All the fine workmanship of the time was spent on the statues, carvings, colored-glass windows, the rich and intricate adornment and furnishing of these great structures. Some of them were building for generations.

The new civilization that was now growing up in the towns and cities of Europe was a strange mixture of Christianity, of the memories of the old Latin learning that had survived in the monasteries, of the borrowings from the Arabians, and of things the Europeans had themselves created. It was not Greek-Roman, or classical as we say; neither was it modern like our own; we call it medieval, that is, belonging to the Middle Ages. It was religious or Christian in the main. But it was slowly becoming something else. Business and commerce were rapidly increasing and a new and important kind of man, the business man, was coming into existence, to take his place alongside the priests and old warrior nobility. The priests began to improve their knowledge of Latin, to study and debate about the deeper Christian ideas and beliefs. Men studied law and medicine, and the rules of sound thinking. More attention was given to the world of nature, the science of the Greeks and the Arabians—still woefully mixed up with fantastic ideas and superstitions. Schools



Courtesy of Mentor Magazine

THE CATHEDRAL AT AMIENS IN FRANCE

were established at the cathedrals, and at last the universities that have come down to us. Great books appeared, written no longer in the Latin language but in the language of the common people—Italian, French and English. Great poems were written in these languages, describing the important happenings of the Middle Ages. When the Turks in the East at last conquered the city of Constantinople, with its rich memories of the ancient Greek civilization that had been so largely forgotten in the West, hundreds of learned men brought the Greek language and Greek books to Europe and spread their influence there. Europeans were at last ready for all that the ancients had thought and felt about life and the world. A tremendous interest in the older civilization was revived. The ancient books were hunted out of their hiding places, and admired and imitated. The barbarous Europeans were no longer barbarous; they had at last caught up with the ancients and were now ready to go on to the new discoveries and inventions that make up our modern civilization. This time in Europe is called the Revival of Learning. It is pictured in a fanciful way in the illustration on the opposite page.

We see in looking back over the long road we have so rapidly traveled that civilization began in the savagery and barbarism of the stone ages. The beginnings of European civilization came from the Egyptians, from the people of western Asia living near the Euphrates and Tigris, and from those in the lands and islands of the Eastern Mediterranean. The Greeks caught their inspiration from these people and made the beginnings of our truly European civilization. The Romans added to Greek civilization and passed it on to the barbarians of Western Europe, along with Christianity that had come from Palestine. With the conquest of Europe by the barbarians from over the Rhine and the Danube, the growth of civilization was interrupted for centuries while these barbarians were setting Europe in order and building up their trade. Slowly the Christian Church and the Mohammedans and the stimulating experiences of trade and of the Crusades brought enlightenment to European people. At last



they knew enough to realize their backward condition and to set about energetically to make themselves as learned and cultivated as the best of the ancients had been. This brought on the Revival of Learning and introduced the more intelligent Modern Times with their new knowledge of the natural world, of geography, of the past, and of the life of men in nations and societies.

From all this it might appear that the European barbarians had been borrowers from other people only, but this would be a great mistake. With all their borrowing they made fresh and interesting additions of their own, as we have noticed. There is one thing especially that was largely their own. This has to do with the love of individual liberty and an unwillingness to be wholly mastered by kings and despots. The barbarians derived this trait from the sturdy independence of the life in their forest homes. When the tribes had taken over the Roman Empire, the war-lords undertook to build up kingdoms and empires after the Roman model. But these did not last, and as opportunity afforded the different groups broke up into hundreds of little kingdoms.

The kings, to be sure, did in the end win back their power and influence and by war, marriage and other means weld their unlike peoples into single nations, such as England, France, Spain and Portugal—nations that these peoples have come to regard as their own and to be proud of. But with all their power, kings in Europe never were able to make themselves despots like those of the ancient empires. The old barbarian spirit of independence was too strong. In England especially, the lords and nobles held out for many of their old-time rights. Later the landholders and merchants of the towns took a hand; they insisted on a share in the government by their parliaments, which made the laws, levied the taxes, provided for courts of justice and trial by jury. As the law of England took form, it was fashioned to suit the liberty-loving disposition of the Anglo-Saxon people of England. This law, called the Common Law of England, was brought to America by English colonists and became the basis of the law of this country.

APPENDIX

THE SOURCES OF THE SELECTED MATERIAL

Following is a list of the narratives and books from which the selections in the text have been made. The numbers correspond with those placed at the conclusion of the several selections. In each case, after a reference to the narrative or work drawn upon, a book is named containing the complete account when this is within the reach of the ordinary reader. Occasionally additional related material is suggested.

For those who may be interested in the further use of source material in the schools a word should be said of its availability. There would seem to be no serious reason why valuable "projects" may not be arranged, for older pupils particularly, involving the search for source material bearing upon points or questions of special interest to them. Doubtless such a search should be made relatively easy, by indicating quite definitely those portions of the narrative or account in which the relevant material may be found.

The two great collections for the period covered will be found in the larger libraries only. These are (1) The Works of the Hakluyt Society—the classic collection—in many volumes. The contents of this series may be ascertained from the card index of the library, presumably under the head "Hakluyt Society—Works of." (2) Purchas His Pilgrimes, covering the period less completely. This has been republished recently (Macmillan, 1905-1907). Volume 20 contains an index to the whole. Some of the older and larger libraries may have a third collection: A General Collection of Voyages and Travels by John Pinkerton, 1808-14.

A collection of sources more likely to be found in the smaller libraries has for the title of the series "Original Narratives of Early American History." It has been recently and carefully edited and contains many of the narratives of the period (Charles

Scribner's Sons). References to several volumes in this series will be found below, indicated in brackets following the title as "Original Narratives." Because of their small cost (five cents a copy) and their easy availability, the relevant numbers of the Old South Leaflets are also suggested. These may be had from The Old South Association, Old South Meeting House, Boston, Mass. A list of titles will be furnished on request. A reference should also be made here to T. W. Higginson's "Young Folks' Book of American Explorers" (Longmans, Green & Co.), 1898. This is a useful and interesting collection of sources, to which the present compilers are indebted. The notes should be verified from more recent authority.

1. Paraphrased from the account in Martins' "The Golden Age of Prince Henry the Navigator" (translated by Abraham and Reynolds, 1914), by permission of Chapman and Hall, Ltd., London.
2. From "The Travels of Marco Polo." See Old South Leaflet No. 32. There are several juvenile books on Marco Polo, including quotations from his own.
3. Quoted in Beazley's "Prince Henry the Navigator" (Putnam), 1895.
4. From Azurara's Chronicle, Works of the Hakluyt Society, No. 59.
5. From the letter of Brunetto Latini.
6. Quoted from Filson Young's "Christopher Columbus and the New World of His Discovery," 1906, by permission of Grant Richards, Ltd., London, and J. B. Lippincott, Philadelphia.
7. From the Journal of the First Voyage. See "The Northmen, Columbus and Cabot," edited by Olson and Bourne (Original Narratives), 1906. The Journal was reprinted in 1924 by A. and C. Boni, with an introduction by Van Wyck Brooks. See, also, Old South Leaflets, Nos. 29, 33, 102.
8. From the letter to the sovereigns on the third voyage. Works of the Hakluyt Society, No. 43. For other sources relating to the

second and third voyages of Columbus, see the volume edited by Olson and Bourne (under 7, above).

9. From the volume edited by Olson and Bourne (under 7, above). See *Old South Leaflets*, Nos. 37, 115.

10. From the "Roteiro," etc., by an unknown writer. *Works of the Hakluyt Society*, No. 99.

11. From the last will of Diego Méndez. For other source material relating to the fourth voyage of Columbus, see the volume edited by Olson and Bourne (under 7, above).

12. From the letter to the sovereigns on the fourth voyage. See volume edited by Olson and Bourne (under 7, above).

13. From Irving's "Life and Voyages of Christopher Columbus" (Putnam).

14. From the *Narrative of Pigafetta*, *Works of the Hakluyt Society*, No. 52.

15. From the texts of the Letter to the King, in Appendix A, *Fifteenth Annual Report of the American Scenic and Historic Preservation Society*, 1910 (E. Hagaman Hall, editor). See *Old South Leaflet*, No. 17.

16. From the *Relation of the Voyage*. See "Spanish Exploration in the Southwest" (Original Narratives), 1916, edited by Bolton.

17. From the letter of the Venetian ambassador Giustiniano.

18. From Roper's *Life of Sir Thomas More*.

19. From Hall's *Chronicle*.

20. Quoted in Robinson's "Readings in European History," II.

21. From the *Grey Friars' Chronicle*.

22. Quoted in Putnam's "William the Silent" (Putnam), 1895. A life of William the Silent has been written for young people by Miall (London: Harrap & Co.).

23. From Motley's "Rise of the Dutch Republic" (Harper), 1859. "The Siege of Leyden" from Motley has been arranged for school use by Griffis (D. C. Heath & Co.).

24. From the *Narrative of Cabaza de Vaca*. See "Spanish Ex-

plorers in Southern United States" (Original Narratives), 1907, edited by Hodge and Lewis. The Narrative is also edited by Bandelier in the Trail Makers' Series of A. S. Barnes & Co. See, also, Old South Leaflet, No. 39.

The first-mentioned book also contains sources relating to the expedition of Coronado. See, also, the volume edited by Winship, in the Trail Makers' Series of A. S. Barnes & Co., 1904; and Old South Leaflet, No. 20.

25. From the Narrative of the Gentleman of Elvas. See the first reference under 24, above. The Narrative is also in the Trail Makers' Series of A. S. Barnes & Co. Edited by Bourne. See, also, Old South Leaflet, No. 36.

26. Quoted in Bolton's "Spanish Border Lands" (Chronicles of America), 1921.

27. From the Chaplain's account, reprinted in Old South Leaflet, No. 89.

28. From the narrative of Laudonnière.

29. From the narrative of Francis Pretty, with two brief interpolations from *The World Encompassed* by Sir Francis Drake; the part by Zarate from Old South Leaflet, No. 116. For Pretty's narrative, see Payne's "Voyages of Elizabethan Seamen, First Series" (Clarendon Press, Oxford), 1893. See, also, Old South Leaflet, No. 116 (Drake in California).

30. From the memoirs of Robert Carey; the letters of Drake and Hawkins from Henderson's "Side Lights on English History."

31. From Froude's "Spanish Story of the Armada," 1892, by permission of Charles Scribner's Sons.

32. From the report of the voyage by Haies. See "Early English and French Voyages" (Original Narratives), edited by Burrage, 1906; also, Old South Leaflet, No. 118.

33. From the Fourth Voyage to Virginia, by Governor John White. See the reference under 32, above. Also, Old South Leaflets, Nos. 92, 119.

34. From the Fifth Voyage of John White. See the reference under 32, above.
35. From "Spanish Exploration in the Southwest" (Original Narratives), 1916, edited by Bolton; by permission of Charles Scribner's Sons. Other sources relating to the expedition of Oñate are given in this volume.
36. From Lescarbot's History of New France.
37. From Champlain's Voyages. See the edition of Grant (Original Narratives), 1907. For sources relating to the voyages of Cartier, see the reference under 32, above.
38. From the diary of Robert Juet. See "Narratives of New Netherland" (Original Narratives), 1909, edited by Jamieson; and Old South Leaflet, No. 94.
39. From Hume's "Sir Walter Ralegh," 1897 (London: Unwin); and Edwards' "Life of Sir Walter Ralegh," 1868 (Macmillan).

A NOTE TO TEACHERS ON READING

Not all the teachers responsible for American History in the elementary schools have had advanced training in the subject. Those who have not sometimes feel confused and uncertain as to how they may best spend the quite limited amount of time and energy they have to prepare themselves for supplementing the contents of the textbook. The success of the work depends so largely upon the teacher's ability to place the necessarily limited account of the text in a larger perspective, and to bring to the class discussion judicial comment and related detail, that the compilers have thought it desirable to append here a brief reading list.

The books listed are at once authoritative and entertaining. They make good reading quite apart from their application to school use. Most of them offer suggestions for further reading in the more elaborate treatises, if this is desired. While many others, equally useful, doubtless might have been included, a larger list would perhaps discourage rather than invite the minimum of reading that is so much to be desired.

The *Chronicles of America* series, published by the Yale University Press of New Haven, is composed of brief, readable and recent accounts of the principal topics in American history. They are handy in form and moderate in cost (especially in the cheaper edition). They are supplied with maps, and in a bibliographical note refer to the standard accounts of greater length. The volumes that relate to the topics in this book are

No. 2. Richman's "Spanish Conquerors" (including Columbus, Balboa and Cortés), 1921;

No. 3. Wood's "Elizabethan Sea Dogs," 1918;

No. 4. Munro's "Crusaders of New France," 1921;

No. 23. Bolton's "Spanish Border Lands" (including De León, De Vaca, De Soto, Coronado and Cabrillo), 1921.

A like series is published at Toronto by Glasgow Brook and Co., as *The Chronicles of Canada*. The pertinent volumes are

No. 1. Leacock's "Dawn of Canadian History" (including the Norsemen and the Cabots), 1915;

No. 2. Leacock's "Mariner of St. Malo" (Cartier), 1915;

No. 3. Colby's "Founder of New France" (Champlain), 1915.

In addition to these more general accounts are certain books devoted to special topics, of unusual value to teachers by reason of their popular appeal and a wealth of detail of interest to children.

On the Portuguese exploration off Africa:

Martins' "The Golden Age of Prince Henry the Navigator" (translated by Abraham and Reynolds, 1914), London: Chapman and Hall, Ltd.

On Columbus:

Filson Young's "Christopher Columbus and the New World of His Discovery," several editions. London: Grant Richards, Ltd.; Philadelphia: J. P. Lippincott.

On Magellan:

Hildebrand's "Magellan," N. Y.; Harcourt, Brace and Howe, 1924.

On De Soto:

King's "De Soto in the Land of Florida," N. Y.; Macmillan, 1898.

On the English-Spanish contest:

Hume's "Sir Walter Ralegh," several editions. London: T. Fisher Unwin.

On the West Indies:

Ober's "Storied West Indies," N. Y.: D. Appleton and Co., 1900.

On Marco Polo:

Byrne's "Ser Marco Polo" (a romance).

On ships and sailing:

Chatterton's "Sailing Ships: The Story of Their Development from the Earliest Times to the Present Day." London: Sidgwick and Jackson, Ltd.

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